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HIS MAJESTY GEORGE, KING OF THE HELLENES.
Born December 24, 1845 (N.S.).
(See p. 42.)

GREECE OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

BY

PERCY F. MARTIN, F.R.G.S.

AUTHOR OF
"THROUGH FIVE REPUBLICS OF SOUTH AMERICA," "MEXICO'S TREASURE HOUSE," "MEXICO OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY," "PERU OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY," "SALVADOR OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY," "HANDBOOK TO LATIN-AMERICAN INVESTMENTS," ETC., ETC.

WITH A PREFACE BY
PROFESSOR ANDRÉ ANDRÉADÈS
Of the University of Athens

29761

AND A MAP AND 75 ILLUSTRATIONS

T. FISHER UNWIN
LONDON: ADELPHI TERRACE
LEIPSIC: INSELSTRASSE 20
1913

TO HIS MAJESTY

GEORGE

KING OF THE HELLENES

UNDER WHOSE WISE, PRUDENT, AND BENEFICENT REIGN OF

NEARLY FIFTY YEARS, GREECE HAS GROWN TO UNITY,

INDEPENDENCE, AND PROSPERITY,

THIS BOOK

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PREFACE

OF late years books upon Greece have been published in generous numbers. Her politics—home and foreign—her customs and characteristics, as well as her literature, have been reviewed and criticised with much care.[1] There are but few travellers who may have passed a few weeks in the country who do not deem it to be their bounden duty to convey to the eager public the result of their impressions of this classic land. The number of archæological works—or works which would pass as archæological—are as immeasurably numerous.

It would appear from the character of such bibliography, and the many similar souvenirs which a visit to the kingdom of Greece calls forth, that apart from its archæological and political features it is not worth consideration or to be regarded from an economic and financial standpoint.

It is true that some sixty years ago there appeared two very good publications—one being in English from the pen of Frederick Strong and bearing the title "Greece as a Kingdom; or, a Statistical Description

[1] Notably Mr. William Miller's "Greek Life in Town and Country" (London: George Newnes, 1905); and the reports of the Conferences which were held in Paris under the auspices of the French League for the Defence of the Rights of Hellenism, including the studies of M. M. Homolle, Cochin, Houssaye, Reinach, Théry, Deschamps, Diehl, &c. &c., rendered into English under the editorship of Mr. G. F. Abbott, with a Preface by the late Sir Charles Dilke, M.P (London: T. Fisher Unwin, 1909).

of that Country" (London: 1842); and the other in French, and entitled "Etude Economique de la Grèce" (Paris: 1847), by Ch. Leconte. Since then there has appeared practically nothing of any importance except the small but excellent book issued by M. Edouard Théry, "La Grèce actuelle au point de vue économique et financière," which, however, is now some seven years old.

The explanation for the paucity of useful books is, after all, simple enough. In order to write a work upon the economic conditions of Greece it is necessary to pass an appreciably lengthy time in the country, and to supplement the scarcity of reliable statistics by close personal inquiry and investigation. Such methods of gaining information are necessarily tedious and difficult, not the least of which is the language question, most of the official documents available being inscribed in Greek character and in modern Greek, which is, moreover, a language that but few foreigners understand. *Græca sunt nom leguntur* has been an axiom of the copyists since the days of the Middle Ages.

It is to the compilation of a long and a painstaking work that Mr. Percy F. Martin has not hesitated to give his attention. I have seen him at his labours during the course of several months. He has not merely confined himself to sitting down and laboriously translating important works or to presenting the figures amassed by others; he has gone abroad, travelled here and there, consulted the sources of the greatest authority and accuracy, seeking the heads of each department, striving to assimilate and to merge into a comprehensible whole the results of his personal examinations; he has done more, for he has journeyed from end to end of the kingdom, studying carefully and critically questions of finance and the problems of the agricultural and economic situation. Neither has he confined his peregrination to the kingdom of Greece; he has gone much farther afield, for he visited Crete, of which

island the author says, " Though it does not yet belong to Greece, by every law of reason and justice it ought to."

In this connection one may aptly recall the action of Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, an uncle of the late Queen Victoria, who was elected King of Greece about the year 1830, an honour which he felt compelled to decline, because the Powers had recognised the Ottoman claim to this same Crete, without the possession of which, he considered, Greece could neither live nor progress. One can appreciate how very shrewdly the future King of the Belgians judged the situation when one bears in mind that all the difficulties which King George has met in an otherwise happy and prosperous reign arose from the Cretan maze.

But let me return to the work which has been performed by Mr. Martin. The one great fact which will strike the reader above all others is the immense number of subjects which the author has been enabled to deal with in the limited space at his disposal. Naturally, the subjects treating of financial and economic interest have attracted the greater part of his attention; the three long and detailed chapters devoted to agriculture, and the same number to the full descriptions of all the railway systems of the kingdom, no less than chapters devoted respectively to finance, banking, commerce, &c., prove this sufficiently. But he also finds the opportunity to deal efficiently and sympathetically with such subjects as the Royal Family, the Administration, and with the Legislature; neither does he neglect the army, the navy, the police, nor yet such matters of moment as literature, music, and the fine arts.

It would be an act of superfluity upon my part to praise the talent of a writer as well known to the English-speaking public as the author of " Through Five Republics of South America " and of so many other equally well regarded works; but I think that

Preface

I should bear testimony to the remarkably up-to-date character which distinguishes everything that is written by Mr. Martin. In the present work the information is brought right up to the period of the last political elections in Greece—namely, in March, 1912, and even beyond, for he gives us the latest particulars regarding the final orders passed in naval construction by the new Minister of Marine as lately as July of this year. I should also repeat that Mr. Martin writes of what he knows and of that which he has seen, and to know and to see which he has spared himself neither time, nor trouble, nor yet expense.

Particularly while travelling in the provinces—for he has not yielded to the common temptation of lingering in the delights of Athens—he has studied the details of local administration, interviewing many prefects and demarchs, and many less exalted officials; visiting factories of every description, noting carefully the hours of labour in each separate industry, the wages paid to male and female workers, the cost of raw materials, and the selling price of the finished product, down to the minutest detail of agricultural and mineral output. He has lost no time in giving to the reading public the fruits of his patient and purposeful investigations; it is the English method, and it is the best method.

Thus every one should be interested in reading his book. Even many Greeks, devoted as they are to their homeland, and thinking that they know already all about it, will find herein facts and figures which they will see for the first time and read with corresponding pleasure. To this unusual degree is the book both new and complete.

It seems to me also a happy coincidence that this work appears in the English language. During the past few years both French and Belgian capital has been flowing quite naturally and easily towards Greece. Already it has to a considerable extent found its way into such enterprises as banks, mines, gasworks, &c.,

as well as in railway schemes, such as that of the Athens-Frontier line, commenced in 1901 and finished some four years ago, as also of La Société Privilégiée des Raisins de Corinthe, the Athens Tramways, the Electric Light and Power Company, and other notable undertakings.

Originally formed with Greek and German capital, of late the Banque d'Orient, of which the author has also something to say, has become, like the other great joint-stock bank—the Banque d'Athènes—the representative of Greek and French interests ; the handsome profits which French capital has earned upon such investments in Greece have conduced to more and more money from France finding its way to the Hellenic kingdom, and the financial connections between Athens and Paris becoming more and more cemented. While hoping that these happy relations may continue uninterrupted, and, indeed, may increase in importance, one cannot but share in the author's conclusions to the effect that a country like Greece, whose abundant resources are as yet untouched, should attract the capital and enterprise of all the world. Such a work as that now produced by Mr. Percy Martin should draw the very attention that is so much needed.

And now one word in conclusion. Mr. Martin is frankly an optimist. He believes in a bright future for Greece. Heedless of being deemed a Chauvinist, I do not hesitate to aver that he is right. The figures which he gives throughout his pages, and which prove so clearly the astonishing progress that has been made since the kingdom was established, amply justify his opinion. He shows how that in 1833 the country was little more than a desert. But what confirms this belief in the country's capabilities is the amount of progress that is recorded during the last few years. Not only has the rate of exchange, which in 1902 stood at 1·62, fallen to par ; have the national receipts augmented in every department so as to give to Greek bonds a

sound and solid character; has it been possible for the first time since 1890 to issue a foreign public loan without having to seek the support of the International Commission, but for some time past a spirit of calm confidence and perfect peacefulness has reigned throughout Greece.

Military officers have now been excluded from sitting in Parliament; all of the Government services have been arranged in "classified sections," the functionaries are appointed by direct competition, and are entirely independent of favouritism or political preferment; magistrates and judges are irremovable and their remuneration has been considerably augmented; the police force has been entirely reorganised by the Italian Mission, as has been the army by the French Mission and the navy by the British; a Minister of Financial Economy, Agriculture, and Commerce has been appointed. In a word, Greece is now one of the smaller countries where the most hard work is being done, and where it is bringing in the greatest return.

A. ANDRÉADÈS.
Professor of Public Finance and of Statistics at the University of Athens; Dean of the Faculty of Law.

ATHENS,
July 20, 1912.

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Greece of the Twentieth Century

INTRODUCTION

"This survival of the fittest, which I have here sought to express in mechanical terms, is that which Mr. Darwin has called 'natural selection, or the preservation of favoured races in the struggle for life.'"
HERBERT SPENCER, "Indirect Equilibration."

THE average visitor to Greece—and every visitor becomes at some time or other its commentator and critic—is apt to denounce the country as "backward," and to draw comparisons between the progress made with that of some other countries such as Italy, Austria, and Roumania. While, even judged by these standards, the Hellenic kingdom has little to fear and nothing whatever to apologise for, the comparison is really an absurd one. The only common bond between the different States mentioned is that they have all at some time within the past century been engaged in life-struggles, while Servia emerged triumphant—if decidedly impoverished. Here, however, all similarity ends. Under the dominion of their conquerors and oppressors neither Italy, Austria, nor Roumania ever suffered one tithe of the exactions, the persecutions, or the destruction which were the unhappy lot of Greece at the hands of the barbarous Turk.

The marvel seems to be that this small but yet vigorous State should have made any industrial progress at all, considering that the hated Mussulman left it nothing whatever to call its own but the bare earth and the barer mountains, having swept from their

surface every vestige of cultivation and vegetation, to the very trees and shrubs which they uprooted or burned, while hardly one house in the whole country was left without suffering damage of some kind.

Greece, as a consequence, has had to commence again from the very beginning and to build and to cultivate anew, after having to clear away the *débris* of a ruin which was as complete as it was cruel, and to effect all this, moreover, without the smallest practical assistance from its immediate neighbours or any financial encouragement from its powerful European rescuers.

But the restoration was taken in hand, and to-day it is almost complete. Only the Greeks themselves, however, this patient, plodding, persistent people, who have slaved without intermission and have saved without hesitation that their well-loved country might benefit, can tell of the long privations, the bitter sufferings, and the numerous disappointments which have attended their great sacrifice.

History contains few greater object-lessons, nor any more pathetic in intensity of purpose, than this persecuted but indomitable nation of heroic tradition, shattered and dispersed as it was after several decades of desperate struggles for freedom, combining with one mind and with one will to rebuild its ruined habitations and to restore to the fatherland some semblance of its former greatness. All honour to those who yielded up their lives, to those others who devoted their fortunes gained by honest toil in foreign lands, to those who remitted to the country of their birth every cent which could be spared from their hard-earned wages in distant lands. If the Greeks had done nothing but this to show their patriotism and their unselfishness, they would have earned a large share of the world's esteem.

Let those sapient critics who would judge accurately of the Greeks' industrial and social progress remember these pertinent facts, and then let them pass in review

the evidences of real advancement which has been made, notwithstanding the difficulties, the obstructions, and the discouragements which have been their lot since they threw off the Turkish yoke and became again a separate and a homogeneous nation.

Eighty years have gone by, and the whole kingdom now shows how unanimous, and withal how remarkable, has been the fine spirit of the people in rebuilding their industry and commerce, and in restoring their country to a position of importance among the nations of the world. Not only in Athens, the centre of Greek culture and social progress, is this advancement to be noted; in the provinces and in the larger towns—aye, even in the smallest of the remote villages—one observes the same awakening of national life, the same splendid enthusiasm, the same burning desire to see Hellas, beloved Hellas, become once more a great influence for good. Even the past decade has shown a remarkable amount of progress—commercial, industrial, and social; while the financial status of Greece to-day is such that at no previous period of her national history has anything approaching the fundamental stability of things been experienced.

Let us glance at her population. In 1838, the date of the first census taken in the country by the order of the late King Otto, Greece counted but 752,077 inhabitants. In 1909, the date of the last census, the population attained the figure of 2,631,952 souls, some 600,000 of these having been added by the annexation of Thessaly and the Ionian Islands.

Then in regard to the superficial area. In 1837 the superficial area of Greece was 47,576 square kilometres. To-day the area is given as being 62,270 square kilometres, including the new territory above referred to.

As to Budget receipts, in 1837 the total amounted to 16,118,533 drachmæ, but in 1912 the estimated income is placed at 143,618,645 drachmæ.

In 1837 the Budget expenditure of the Government was 20,054,028 drachmæ, whereas for 1912 the expenses are valued at the sum of 142,448,113 drachmæ.

According to a report which was published in 1832, "all the roads in Greece which are used by caravans and individual travellers are encumbered with rocks and ruins from the thoroughfares which have been destroyed, and are so seriously inundated during the rainy seasons that passage is practically impossible." This is an extract from the "Demarcation Report" upon the Peloponnesus and Greece which was made by the Commission appointed by the Secretary of the Interior, and is worth attention, for in 1852 some 160 kilometres of new roads had been constructed, mainly by the work of the inhabitants living in the neighbourhood and partly by the troops. Between 1852 and 1867 over 233 kilometres additional had been made, at an expenditure of 3,500,000 drachmæ, while since then a further 145,000,000 have been expended upon the same object. The roads of Greece to-day will compare favourably with those of any country in the Near East.

When the Turks were finally chased from Greece they abandoned the ports in a state of complete ruin. Two small shelters at the port of Nauplia, for the sailing ships *Hydra* and *Spetzai*, were all that remained that could be used in the whole of the kingdom. Since this period the sum of 150,000,000 drachmæ has been expended upon construction or improvement of the ports of Patras, Syra, Missolonghi, Corfu, &c., and more especially at Piræus, which in 1837 was a mere small collection of fishermen's huts and little else but an expanse of sand. To-day the Piræus ranks as fourth port of importance on the Mediterranean. Additionally, authorities agree that the Greek coast is better lighted at night than that of any other country.

The long and destructive wars of the Independence

period had served to reduce the mercantile marine—which had flourished towards the end of the eighteenth and the commencement of the nineteenth centuries—to a mere vestige of its former importance. The total tonnage in 1837 scarcely exceeded 4,500, and the number of Greek steamers was probably under 30 or 40. According to the latest figures, given to me by a former Minister of Marine (M. E. Emberico), the Greek mercantile marine consists to-day of 300 steamers, with a tonnage exceeding 390,000 tons, and a value of over 150,000,000 drachmæ. The Greek marine has now surpassed that of England which trades with Greece, both in regard to the number of its bottoms and the value of its trade.

The agricultural production is, or at least should be, a sufficiently clear indication of its importance in the world's markets. "Blessed be agriculture, if one does not have too much of it," Charles Dudley Warner once wrote; and the Greeks have not had as yet enough of it, although the annual returns are showing an altogether remarkable power of expansion. The currant trade (of which I have had much to say in the subjoined pages) in 1837 was estimated at 22,000,000 (Venetian) lbs. At the same period, except perhaps in some of the more remote mountain regions and upon a few of the smaller islands of the Ægean Sea, there was not to be found a single vine in the country; everything had been ruthlessly, wantonly destroyed by the Turks. In 1910-11 the yield from the same plants was no less than 323,000,000 (Venetian) lbs. During the last year (1910-11) the viticultural production was 4,000,000 hectolitres.

The same remark as to destruction by the Turks applies to the many olive-trees which formerly flourished in Greece. Ibrahim Pacha, who led the Egyptian troops, left absolutely nothing standing. Nevertheless, by 1910-11 the production of olive-oil had reached the figure of 83,000,000 litres.

In regard to the transportation arrangements of Greece, the first railway track ever laid in the country was in 1870, when the short 8 kilometres between Piræus and Athens were constructed and opened for traffic. The length of railway trackage existing in the kingdom to-day has attained a total exceeding 1,600 kilometres, and construction is still proceeding, or contemplated, in several directions.

The first attempt at establishing the industry of mining in Greece was made but forty years ago (1872), by the firm of Messrs. J. B. Serpieri & Co. The return of the number of workmen employed in the mining industry to-day shows that over 10,000 draw regular wages, while the gross revenue amounted in 1910 to a value of 23,268,227 drachmæ.

Finally, the financial situation has improved almost beyond belief. Unfortunately, no accurate figures previous to the year 1841 are obtainable, but at the period that the National Bank was founded (1842) the deposits at interest and without interest amounted to but 33,000,000 drachmæ. In 1911 the deposits at the banks in Athens alone (exclusive of the provincial establishments) showed the total, in round figures, to be 408,100,000 drachmæ. Including provincial and private establishments, the figures exceed 500,000,000 drachmæ.

In spite of the comparative lightness of taxation, some Greeks with whom I have at various times discussed the question of national taxation have considered that they have been unduly burdened by recent impositions, and in their ignorance of conditions prevailing outside their own country they have even imagined themselves to be particularly ill-used.

My firm conviction, arrived at after a very careful and systematic study of the country's conditions and of temperament of the people, is that just as Greece

enjoyed a glorious progress in the past and is going through a slow but encouraging evolution in the present, so will she realise her reasonable aspirations in the future. Checks, reverses she may be yet called upon to meet, and doubtless some disappointments in the years to come, yet none among them probably in any way comparable to what have been experienced and overcome in times gone by.

Through all such vicissitudes I feel assured that the Hellenes will emerge triumphant, and still better equipped, from these same regular changes to face the competition and the struggles for commercial and social existence. I look to the great concentration of the people within the limits of their own country rather than the carrying of Hellenism into new lands.

There are millions of Greeks who have from time immemorial lived and flourished in the islands of the Archipelago, on the coasts of Asia Minor, and the Greek ports of Macedonia. Here must they be permitted to continue their peaceful and prosperous careers. But let others return as soon as may be from the United States of America to their own fair lands, where their labour is necessary in order to bring to full fruition the bountiful produce which Nature offers in return for the most modest attempt to cultivate the soil. The blood of Leonidas and of Diakos still runs in the veins of the modern Greeks, and one would not have it otherwise ; yet I—but one among the many well-wishers and ardent admirers of young Hellas—would gladly see prevail a little more of the spirit of Clisthenes, many of whose wise provisions may still be traced in the government of Greece to-day.

The place of Greece in the affairs of the universe is clearly defined and as generally conceded. That she will fulfil her part in the world's good work may be accepted as certain.

The scope of the present volume admits of no space being allotted either to the enumeration or to any

description of the many archæological remains and ancient art treasures which are to be found in Greece, and which serve to render this country so fascinating and so instructive to travellers generally. Fortunately a wealth of authoritative material has been furnished by eminent archæologists and antiquarians upon these subjects; indeed, no branch of literature has been more liberally endowed nor more capably treated than this. I feel, therefore, that no serious fault will have been occasioned by the omission of mention of these matters from this work. In order to receive that careful attention which they merit it would require not one but many compendious volumes such as would not come naturally under any such title as "Greece of the Twentieth Century."

CHAPTER I

Physical features—Configuration—Beauty of scenery—Mountains—Sunset in Hellas—Absence of rivers—Afforestation—Tree-planting in Athens—Public rendezvous—Botanical Gardens—The King's forests—Hotel life—Principal hotels—Accommodation—Drawbacks—The seasons.

IN the extreme south-east of Europe, where the map indicates a latitude of 35° 40′–40° 10′ N. and a longitude of 18° 20′–25° 50′ E., lies the kingdom of Greece. The area is small, a little less, indeed, than 25,000 square miles (the precise dimensions, inclusive of the territory of Thessaly, are 24,966 square miles), while the 1907 statistics give it a population of 2,631,952.

Curious is the physical configuration of this country, for, while in actual area it is smaller than Scotland (which contains nearly 30,000 square miles), it enjoys a coast-line no less than seven times the length of that of England and twelve times that of France in proportion to the respective areas. Lofty mountain, fertile plain, verdant pastures and deep-blue inlets, innumerable islands, nearly every one of which bears some historic name, gulfs, capes, archipelagos, isthmuses, lakes, and peninsulas—in fact, every phase of geographical formation—may be found in this fascinating country. The sea penetrates to the innermost recesses of the land, while each separate province or Nomos of the kingdom can claim some distinctive feature in regard to climate, soil, forestry, or temperature.

I have seen but one country in the world—that of

Colombia, in South America—which in a way reminds me of Greece, and that suggestion of similarity is but partial. Both lands possess the curious, fan-shaped ranges of mountains, the vast rows of tumbled, billowy mountain peaks, the ever-changing, never-ending, here intersected by a rolling expanse of lower ground, there broken into by an unexpected stretch of clear blue water glittering and scintillating in the brilliant sunshine.

The one point of difference between Colombian and Greek mountain scenery is this—the former shows peaks and slopes green from head to foot and densely clothed with tropical growths; the latter but bare, blistering rock, standing out in serene grandeur against the steel-blue sky, mountains which are almost crystalline in their vivid whiteness and exquisitely chiselled contours.

The mountains of Greece have not inaptly been described as her "diadem," and the chief jewels therein are assuredly Olympus, a fit abode for Zeus and the gods; Parnassus, a thousand feet less in height, the home of the Muses; Œta, Helicon, Cyllene, Taygetos, Corax, and Cyttæron, all renowned in Greek mythology, are all most worthy of the songs that were sung and the romances which were told concerning them.

The kingdom of Hellas came into being at the intervention of the Great Powers in conformity with the agreement arrived at by the London Conference in 1830. Its area was considerably enlarged in 1864 by the addition of the Ionian Islands, while in 1881, as a result of the Conference of Constantinople, Thessaly and Arta were included.

The kingdom may be divided into three geographical sections: (1) the Mainland, (2) the Peloponnesus, and (3) the Islands. The two first divisions are connected by the Isthmus of Corinth, a flat and narrow piece of land which was very easily cut through, and which is washed by the sea at either end.

The area of the newly defined country, including the

islands, which are credited with an area of 3,860 square miles, has already been given as 24,966 square miles. Were Crete added, as no doubt it will and ought to be some day, Greece would have a total area of 28,296 square miles, which would compare with its former dimensions of 19,353 square miles in the year 1832, of which 8,288 square miles were in the Morea, 7,558 in the northern part of continental Greece, 2,500 in the Islands of the Ægean, and 1,007 in the Ionian Islands.

The whole country is strangely lacking in rivers, and those which exist are usually small and rapid running, as might be expected in so mountainous a district. I do not know of any navigable stream ; and even the famous Ilissus in the summer is little more than a chain of pools, while the Cephissus is so hemmed in and tapped for purposes of irrigation that its waters are never permitted to reach the sea. The other rivers of note are the Hellada, in Phthiotis ; the Aspro Potamo, in Ætolia ; and the Roufia and Vasiliko, both in the Morea. It may be added that all of these rivers provide water of delicious flavour and of remarkable clearness. The Greeks drink of them freely, and pronounce them absolutely pure and harmless. Doctors, however, often warn strangers against taking them.

How often have Longfellow's beautiful words depicting the setting of the sun occurred to me while watching the matchless splendours of Nature as day was dying in the land of Greece :—

> "Through the pale dusk of the impending night,
> O'er all alike the imperial sunset throws
> Its golden lilies mingled with the rose."

And nowhere in the world will one meet with more entrancing cloud-pictures, with more marvellous colouring, or with more rapid kaleidoscopic transformations than in Greece. In my own mind I know not, and

neither probably shall I ever definitely determine, in which particular portion of God's beautiful world, a world I know so well, has been vouchsafed to me the most moving and most impressive spectacle that human mind can witness—"sunset's last reflected shine."

Whether in South Africa, across the wide and open stretches of veldt and out beyond the majestic Limpopo mountains; or in Egypt, upon the motionless bosom of incomparable Nile; or in holy Jerusalem, where the glow of gorgeous colour, spread wide across the sky to the hilltops of Bethlehem, produces a feast of beauty impossible of description; or in the Himalayas, where the majestic loveliness of the Indian atmosphere lends a distinctive charm all its own and unmatchable anywhere else in the world; or in Mexico, where the curiously subtle charms of the surroundings make themselves at no hour of the day more deeply felt than at sunset; or in dear old England, where upon a summer's evening Milton's "twilight grey" plays so strong and yet so modestly sweet a part; or, yet again, in Greece, where the spell of its unique allurement is never altogether absent, the effects are always sacred, always soul-stirring, always painfully but yet preciously sad.

Whether it be mountainous Greece, amid the ravines and the chasms of a savage Nature, and the bare and clear-cut rocks which extend relentlessly so far as the eye can reach; or in the peaceful valleys, where deep down in the green recesses of the olive-groves men, women, and little children may be seen with bended backs performing their endless toil; or over the flashing sea, dotted with numberless green islets and across which come sailing white-winged craft from the many neighbouring islands—the sunset clothes everything in glory, evanescent, it is true, but beautiful while it lasts.

The bright, almost steely-blue of the day-time sky grows in the evening hour softer and softer, and a pale

pinkish haze, like a filmy gauze, spreads slowly, almost imperceptibly, across the face of the firmament. The tint of pale mauve which but a moment ago traced faintly the distant Hymettus now becomes a deeper violet, while the peaks take on a glow of amethyst, reflected from the dying glory of the king of day. Streamers of vivid crimson, as clearly defined as if they had been traced with mathematical precision, reach out to the very horizon, and the objects nearest to the eye break into startlingly vigorous outlines.

Down into the sea of seething crimson sinks the orb of day, and as his golden line disappears the life and light of the world seem to depart with him. Of twilight there is little or none; there no prismatic light holds long carnival in the air; a slight pause—which may be almost felt, aye, and almost touched—and the but now furnace-glowing sky has become translucent and shimmering, ethereally beautiful with its soft greys and tender mauves and lace-like fleecy clouds, soon to reflect the pallid beauty of the rising moon, seen as yet but as a shadowy lamp poised well above the distant mountains. The black, velvety darkness of night is at hand; "the stars of the twilight" gleam faintly at first and then like lamps of purest silver—and the day is done.

And so brilliant is the night anon that once again come into clear, outstanding line of vision the noble proportions of Mount Parnassus, towering 8,000 feet and more above the sea, seemingly so close at hand that its stirring waters may be seen glistening in the dancing moonlight, while even passing craft can be clearly identified. The silence of the night is almost painful—one may almost imagine that the voice of Apollo must shortly break out upon the stillness and demand of the trespasser what he seeks so near his sacred haunts. It would hardly surprise us if we saw beside us the whole of the nine Muses who once abode here, or detect the voice of the Oracle of Delphi,

who dwelt upon the lower slopes beneath our feet. Greece is so full of memories, of superstitions, of traditions, and of dreams that almost anything might occur, and we should accept it as appropriate and characteristic.

Among a great deal of other entirely incorrect information which is to be found in certain handbooks dealing with Athens is the statement that this city is deficient in both trees and public gardens. However true this statement may have been some ten years ago, it is entirely erroneous to-day. As a matter of fact, Athens is extremely well-off in regard to pleasant "lungs" for the inhabitants, and although the majority of the open gardens are small, they compensate for this drawback by their admirable orderliness, the brilliancy of the foliage—in summer and winter alike, the majority of the trees and bushes being non-deciduous—and the plenitude of the seats and winding walks.

Moreover, these attractive public places are well patronised, strollers of both sexes frequenting them at most hours of the day, and particularly upon holidays and Sundays; while, in the summer, many groups and pedestrians, accompanied by their families and several schools of young children, take the air there in the evenings. Such favourite rendezvous as the Place de la Constitution and the Place de la Concorde are charmingly set out, and generally free from any ugly protective railings or forbidding gateways and from the grim and usually insolent officials, all of which greatly detract from the pleasure and freedom which the squares themselves afford in England and other countries. These agreeable walking and resting places are for the pedestrian, and his use of them is untrammelled. There is no abuse of the privileges offered, and one seldom hears of the trees or plants being damaged, nor yet of the public parks being used as a fierce debating-ground for shabby and noisy Socialists, political fanatics, or

the detestable Suffragette, who is, fortunately for the Greeks, an unknown evil.

Of late years, also, many of the streets in Athens have been liberally planted with the brilliantly green and highly decorative pepper-tree, with its gracefully drooping branches and, in certain times of the year, bright red berries. Rows of these graceful trees are now to be found upon either side of most of the streets, especially in the newer portion of the city, leading via the Rue de Képhisia to the Acropolis. For many of these improvements the Athenians are indebted to the enterprise and interest evinced by the late Queen Amelia, who was passionately fond of flowers as of animals. To the same regretted lady was due the planting of the Lykabettas, a beautiful eminence situated some 900 feet high, from which a fine view can be obtained, especially at early morning and late in the evening, of the city and surrounding plains.

The " historian " who would ignore these undoubted attractions would equally deny to Athens its beautiful Botanical Gardens, which are found on the Sacred Way leading to Eleusis and thence through the olive-groves and the plain of Kephisos. Here may be seen some exceptionally fine specimens of the *cryptomaria*, as lofty as any to be met with even in the world-famed avenue at Nikko, in Japan. Princess Sophia, the Crown Princess of Greece, has likewise done much to provide Athens with trees and flower-gardens, the dense and flourishing plantation on the slope leading up to Philoppas Monument close to the alleged prison-house of Socrates, being the result of this lady's enterprise, carried out in combination with her husband and children. Here some light wire screens and ornamental iron railings have been erected as a necessary precaution while the trees obtain their full growth, and the Government are having them well watered and carefully looked after. Year by year substantial sums are devoted to this enterprise ; the cost is heavy owing to the lack

of rain, especially during those months of the year when it is most needed, and also to the absence of sufficient water to be obtained in the city itself. In time this will be overcome, since an abundant water supply for the city of Athens is one of the earliest schemes to be carried out. Moreover, the propensity prevailing among the Greeks to cut down trees where they happen to be found, and to neglect to plant others to take their place, is being overcome. A great deal more attention is being devoted to the question of afforestation, the Forest Department of the Ministry of Finance having devoted special interest to this matter since the appointment of M. Samios, who has studied the whole question very thoroughly in Germany, and who is also the author of a small brochure upon the subject, entitled " Pictures from the Greek Forests."

The bareness of the Greek landscape noted by so many writers upon the country has not been attributed to the real reason. This is the wanton destruction caused by the barbaric Turk in carrying out his warfare, a destruction which assumed the form of not alone rasing to the ground every house, cottage, and hut which he encountered during his raids, but the felling of every tree and the burning of every shrub so effectually that at the end of the revolution of 1821-32, when Greece was finally rid of the baneful Turkish government, there was left not a single building nor a solitary tree for hundreds of square miles around. During the past twenty or thirty years, however, the country has gradually resumed its normal verdant appearance, and tree-planting is fast becoming a national enterprise.

Hitherto afforestation has met with but little encouragement in Greece, owing as much as anything to the above-stated propensity which the peasants display for cutting down timber whenever and wherever they encounter it, even that of immature growth. Upon the railway tracks, where thick forest growths have

originally stood, one observes hundreds of once fine trees hacked to destruction ; long strips of their trunks (not merely the barks) have been chopped out with heavy axes by roaming, reckless peasants, who, having thus secured the wood without much trouble and at no expense, have left the tree to die or to live mutilated and disfigured. Until some penalty is imposed and rigidly enforced by the Government (and this seems to be a rather remote probability) the wholesale destruction of trees is likely to continue.

In several instances which have come to my notice, attempts to grow trees upon an extensive scale have been frustrated by the peasants living in the neighbourhood. An example is afforded by the Lake Copais Company. The general manager, Mr. D. Steel, some years ago planted several thousands of trees, which, had they been permitted to remain untouched, would by this time have formed an extensive and valuable plantation. No sooner, however, had they arrived at a marketable or useful stage—that is to say, as soon as their trunks were large enough to chop up for firewood—than they were cut down in every direction. So discouraging was the result of his efforts that Mr. Steel, like others with similar experience, abandoned the enterprise entirely, except so far as the grounds around the homestead are concerned, and where, thanks to his earnest efforts and close attention, some very fine specimens of the white poplar, the plane-tree, the native oak, and the *Sophoro japonica* are to be seen.

In one instance a white poplar which was planted from a cutting fifteen years ago has attained a height of 45 feet, while several plane-trees which were planted at about the same period have reached an altitude of between 35 and 40 feet. Numerous umbrageous plants, practically all herbaceous and border plants, grow with great rapidity in this district, especially the privet, which, without any attention beyond the first planting, quickly forms a thick and evergreen hedge.

The King has also undertaken tree-planting upon an extensive scale, several thousands of acres, surrounding his summer residence at Tatoï, being thickly covered with Scotch firs and Austrian pines, all of which have made remarkable growth within the past few years. His Majesty is very particular that none of these trees are destroyed nor in any way interfered with; and in order to protect them from depredatory hands the whole royal estate is surrounded by a fine wire fencing. So lofty are some of the trees at Tatoï that they now serve to completely shield from view the royal residence, which stands almost in the very centre of the beautiful plantation.

The management of hotels in Greece is not as yet reckoned among the most prosperous of callings. Many of the proprietors profess to find the undertaking not only profitless but extremely troublesome, partly upon account of the servant difficulty, but principally because tourists are few, except at certain seasons of the year, when they arrive in such numbers as to cause confusion and embarrassment, while some, and especially Germans, consider that the usual charges made for accommodation are unreasonably high.

From a comparative point of view, perhaps, they are; that is to say, for the same amount that one is called upon to expend upon hotel life in Greece one would ordinarily receive the best of accommodation in an European or American establishment.

But it must be remembered that everything is dearer in Greece than elsewhere, in spite of the fact that the country is capable of producing almost every kind of food for human consumption, and this in abundance. So far from this being done, however, almost all provisions, and practically everything in the way of furniture, equipments, &c., is imported. Add to this the enormously high Customs duties which prevail, together with the shipping and freight charges, which are by no means light, and it is quite possible to com-

prehend the reason of living being so costly and the plea of the hotel proprietors that they are compelled to charge accordingly.

Were tourists to come in larger and more regular numbers instead of in small and spasmodic batches, or, perhaps, singly at long intervals, the caterers would doubtless be able to so regulate their expenditure as to enable somewhat lower rates to be charged ; as it is, they claim, and as it seems to me with good reason, that they are obliged to make the few visitors whom they receive pay for the many that remain away. Their houses are practically empty for about seven or eight months of the year, and uncomfortably crowded during the remaining months.

During the " season "—that is to say, from February to April—for instance, in Athens, notwithstanding the exceptionally large number of hotels which are to be found there, it is frequently difficult to find accommodation except of an inferior kind. The same thing applies to many of the more frequented resorts, such as Patras, Olympia, Delphi, Missolonghi, and perhaps a few others.

CHAPTER II

The Royal Family—King George—Queen Olga—Crown Prince Constantine—Crown Princess Sophia—Court ceremonies—Royal incomes—Prince George, ex-High Commissioner of Crete—Prince André and Princess Alice—Prince Christopher—Prince Nicolas—Princess Marie—The late Princess Alexandra—Prince George and Princess Hélène.

THE Royal Family of Greece is composed of his Majesty King George; her Majesty Queen Olga; T.R.H. the Crown Prince Constantine, the Crown Princess Sophia, with their five children; H.R.H. Prince George and his wife Princess Marie Bonaparte, with their two children; H.R.H. Prince Nicolas and his wife Princess Hélène with their three children; H.R.H. the Princess Marie and her husband the Grand Duke George of Russia and their two children; H.R.H. Prince André and his wife the Princess Alice and two children; H.R.H. Prince Christopher. The King and Queen have lost one child, the Princess Alexandra, who died in 1891 at the age of twenty-one.

The King is the third son of the late King Christian of Denmark, and consequently a brother of our own well-loved Queen Alexandra. He was born in Copenhagen on the 24th of December, 1845, and is therefore sixty-seven years of age. His election to the throne of Greece in succession to King Otto of Bavaria, who abdicated in 1862, took place in June, 1863, in virtue of the Protocol signed in London, June 6th. His reign commenced on the 31st of October, and has continued with distinction to himself and undoubted benefit

to the Greek nation since then. His Majesty is Supreme Chief of the Greek army and of the navy. The King's household is of but modest pretensions, consisting of a Grand Chamberlain, Chief of Military Staff, two Aides-de-Camp and their assistant aides, a Grand Equerry, and one or two secretaries.

King George came to rule over the Greeks when he was but a lad of eighteen years of age. Son of one of the most respected sovereigns of Europe, King Christian of Denmark, the young Prince immediately became popular with his new people, and since then they have learned to love him as deeply as they have always trusted and respected him. Through all the troublous times which the Sovereign and his subjects have passed, rejoicing together and sorrowing together as the passing years brought their fruits, upon no single occasion has the King been known to act other than in a precise, sympathetic, but thoroughly constitutional manner, lacking nothing of the *fortiter in re* when necessity required, but adopting the policy of *suaviter in modo* wherever and whenever possible.

And now, after long years, when the country is both peaceful and prosperous, King George—who was in his youth Prince William of Sonderbourg-Glücksbourg—can look back as in a dream upon the days of his arrival in this—to him—foreign land, when the country was still suffering acutely from the effects of the insurrection of 1862, which ended in the departure of his unlucky predecessor King Otto, the German, from Greece for ever.

He saw the bitter struggles entered upon for political supremacy among clamorous and selfish patriots; he witnessed the cession of the Ionian Islands by magnanimous Britain, the promulgation of a new Constitution—the Constitution which is still in force, and by the terms of which he rules; he endured with others the inconveniences of the blockade of the Piræus by the European Powers in 1886, and shared the humilia-

tions and the disappointments attendant upon the unsuccessful war waged against Turkey in 1897—the outcome of which mistake was the impoverishment of his adopted country, firstly, by the avenging hand of its inveterate enemy the conquering Ottoman, and, secondly, by the imposition of a war indemnity of no less than 100,000,000 frs. (£4,000,000) and the relinquishing of certain much-prized strategical positions on the Thessalian-Macedonian frontier, to say nothing of having to consent to the control of the Greek finances by the International Financial Commission, which still sits like an incubus upon the freedom of the country. With the memories of the previous unfortunate reign still in their minds, the Greeks may be pardoned, perhaps, for looking with some hesitation at first upon a continuation of the monarchy, admirers as they may have been for the most part, deep down in their hearts, of the *jus divinum* of kings. The two years' experience of an interregnum, however, had been even more disastrous, and the establishment of a monarchy upon new principles, an expedient insisted upon by the Protecting Powers by reason of the exigency of the country's affairs, found many well-wishers, even if they were somewhat dubious of the results.

There is not one among these individuals who still survives but would be ready to admit that the nation's second sovereign has proved their best friend and their most trusted adviser. Neither would they be found to deny that his Majesty has been faced with enormous and exceptional difficulties, nor that he has met those difficulties with patience, prudence, and rare courage.

It must also be remembered that the Danish Prince was not the sovereign upon whom many of the Greeks had originally set the seal of their selection. It was to the young English midshipman Prince Alfred of Edinburgh that the eyes of emancipated Greece first were turned; but he was ineligible, owing to the

stipulations set out in the Treaty which had been entered into between Britain, France, and Russia, and which barred any member of the Royal Families of any one of those contracting parties from ascending the throne of Greece.

Thus Prince William of Denmark had to face the initial difficulty of winning over a people who had ardently wanted some one else; but he soon did so, for his sunny and sympathetic nature, his sterling good qualities, and his shrewd, discerning mind secured for him first the toleration and then the sincere admiration of the most hostile.

Hedged around by the strict tenets of the Constitution, which renders it impossible for the monarch to put his hand to any enactment without the consent and counter-signature of his Ministers, King George has walked the path of complete accord with his people, who have pronounced him latterly as "their best Ambassador in Europe."

The King both speaks and writes English perfectly. In conversation with his Majesty I have found it difficult to realise that I have not been talking with a fellow-countryman.

The royal revenue is a handsome one, considering the smallness of the Greek Court and the necessarily restricted obligations which are imposed upon his Majesty in the way of functions. The nation allows the King an income of £45,000; and in addition he receives £4,000 by reason of the agreement made in 1864 between the three protecting Powers—Great Britain, France, and Russia—which sum was renounced by them from the amounts which Greece was pledged to repay for advances made. Moreover, his Majesty is a shrewd judge of investments, and he has not lost such opportunities as have presented themselves for adding to his fortune. Some small portion of his capital has, for instance, been invested in the vineyards of Tatoï, where an excellent brand of claret

is manufactured and sold in the ordinary way to the public; there are likewise some royal dairies which do a small but profitable business, the produce being much appreciated by those who can obtain it regularly.

Queen Olga is the second daughter of the Grand Duke Constantine Nicolaievitch of Russia, and was born at Paolovsk on the 22nd of August, 1851. Her marriage took place on the 15th of October, 1867, at St. Petersburg, and her Majesty holds the honorary title of Chief of the Second Squadron of the Russian fleet.

The Queen's household is as modest as that of the King, consisting of three or four Ladies of Honour and the Lady of the Bedchamber and a Chamberlain. Her Majesty's many charities and wholehearted sympathy with all of her subjects who are, or who have ever been, in trouble have endeared her to the people. Few but those of her immediate surroundings know of the many benefactions which she has practised—of the private visits to hospitals; of her interest in the sponge-fishers of Tripoli, and her liberal efforts to build a hospital for this hard-working class; of her endeavours to save the poorest of her subjects from the grip and persecution of the numerous usurers who are always ready to prey upon their necessities, by having small sums of money advanced to them at purely nominal interest or at no interest at all, and numerous other kindly but unobtrusive acts of charity.

Prince Constantine, who is also the Duke of Sparta and heir to the throne, was born at Athens on the 21st of July, 1868. He holds the position of Honorary Commandant of the Regiment of Infantry and that of the recently created Inspector-Generalship of the Greek army. He married Princess Sophia, a sister of the Emperor William of Germany, on the 15th of October, 1889, and two years later (May 2, 1891) the Princess became a member of the Greek Orthodox Church.

H.M. QUEEN OLGA (centre); H.R.H. PRINCE ANDRÉ (top left); H.R.H. THE CROWN PRINCE CONSTANTINE (top right); H.R.H. THE CROWN PRINCESS SOPHIA (bottom left); H.R.H. THE PRINCESS NICOLAS (GRAND DUCHESS HÉLÈNE (bottom right). (See p. 46.)

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The Crown Prince

His Royal Highness has devoted more than the usual number of years, and considerably more than the average amount of application, to the study of military matters; and he is credited with possessing one of the soundest educations upon such subjects of any man in Europe. The Crown Prince's position as the head of the army was for long not only an extremely difficult but a most unpleasant one, owing principally to the many personal attacks of which he was made the victim. It was he who was most unfairly blamed for the affairs which immediately preceded and followed the war of 1897, whereas he was absolutely irresponsible. The slanders which were then uttered, and which have since been recognised as absolutely baseless, affected him very deeply. To-day, however, he has some consolation in knowing that he is the idol of the people as well as of the army; and although the Greeks are not given to enthusiasm or emotionalism, the Crown Prince seldom makes any public appearance without occasioning an exceedingly warm demonstration of affection.

The income of the Crown Prince is not a large one, considered from the point of view of an heir-apparent. It amounts to £8,000 a year; and a handsome palace, almost opposite that of the King, is also at his disposal. His Royal Highness, moreover, owns the fine estate of Manolada, situated between Patras and Pyrgos in the beautiful currant-growing district and amid the oak forests of Ali-Jeleki and Rotiki, the latter being two marshy lakes, well stocked with many kinds of fish and connected by canals with the sea. A good deal of the Prince's time is spent here and at the royal villa of Tatoï, close to the palace of the King. Like other members of the Royal Family, the Crown Prince is a complete master of the English language, speaking it without the trace of an accent and writing it with equal facility.

In the month of February last the Crown Prince

of Greece paid a series of official visits to several of the neighbouring Courts—namely, Constantinople, Belgrade, and Sofia. At all alike he was received with the greatest friendliness, and there can be no question that his great personal charm and keen soldierly enthusiasm awoke feelings of great sympathy and admiration among all classes, but especially among the Government officials and the officers of the army. It was understood as one result of the Crown Prince's travels that a new quadruple *entente* between Greece, Russia, Bulgaria, and Turkey might become established, and in this event the peace of the Balkans might be regarded as almost assured.

The Crown Princess Sophia, who bears the title of Chief of the Regiment of Prussian Grenadier Guards, was born on the 14th of June, 1870. There are five children of the marriage—namely, Prince George, born at Dekelia, July 7, 1890, and who is the heir-presumptive; Prince Alexander, born at Dekelia, July 20, 1893; Princess Hélène, born at Athens, April 20, 1896; Prince Paul, born at Athens, December 1, 1901; and Princess Irene, born at Athens, June 1, 1904.

From the day her Royal Highness arrived in Athens she has identified herself closely with the interests of the Greeks, and has manifested the warmest concern in their social arrangements; it will not be denied that during the disastrous war of 1897 the Princess stoutly championed the Greek cause at the Court of Berlin, although both the Emperor, her brother, and his Ministers were extremely cold and unsympathetic.

The Crown Princess of Greece has always been the Emperor William's favourite sister, and her wedding at Athens on October 15, 1889, was attended by him with a large and imposing suite.

Prince George, the second son of the King, was born at Corfu on the 12th of June, 1869. He holds the honorary title of Vice-Admiral in the Greek navy

and similar positions in the Russian and Danish navies. His Royal Highness was married on the 29th of November, 1907, to Princess Marie Bonaparte, the only daughter of Prince Roland Bonaparte, who was born on the 2nd of July, 1882.

Prince George, who is now living in practical retirement and who is but little seen in Athens, was for some years Governor of Crete. In January of 1897 he was dispatched by the Greek Government in command of a torpedo flotilla to Canea; but he soon retired to Melos, remaining there until the month of May, when the expedition was recalled, this decision following upon the Greek reverses in Thessaly and Epirus. In the month of November of 1898 Prince George was nominated High Commissioner of Crete by the Powers, his term of office to be for three years; and this was renewed in 1901. The Prince was remarkably well received by the people when he landed at Suda, and after his arrival complete tranquillity prevailed upon the island. But trouble soon recommenced. There are many Cretans who would like to see him back in his former position, but the Prince himself, after his stormy experiences of six years, would probably be very unwilling to go.

Prince Nicolas, the third son of the King, was born at Athens on the 9th of January, 1872. He has been Colonel-Inspector of Artillery and Aide-de-Camp to his Majesty. On the 16th of August, 1902, he was married at St. Petersburg to the Grand Duchess Hélène Vladimirovna of Russia, who was born on the 17th of January, 1882, and they have three children—the Princess Olga, born at Athens May 29, 1903; Princess Elizabeth, born at Tatoï May 11, 1904; and Princess Marina, born at Athens December 30, 1906.

Princess Marie was born at Athens on the 20th of February, 1876, and she was married at Corfu on the 30th of April, 1900, to the Grand Duke George

Mikhailovitch of Russia, who was born at Tiftes on the 1st of August, 1863. There are two children of this marriage, both girls: Princess Nina, born in 1901, and Princess Xemie in 1903.

Prince André, the fourth son of the King, was born at Athens on the 20th of January, 1882. He has held the rank of Lieutenant of Cavalry in the army, and he is also an officer in the 23rd Regiment of Guards of the Grand Duke of Hesse. He married, on the 24th of September, 1903, the Princess Alice of Battenberg, a granddaughter of the late Princess Alice of Hesse, who was born in England on February 25, 1885. There are two children: Princess Marguerite, born on April 5, 1905, and Princess Theodora, born on May 30, 1906.

Undoubtedly this young Princess has won all hearts in Greece, and to mention her name is to draw forth a smile of pleasure and sympathy. With her stalwart and extremely good-looking husband, who stands over 6 feet 3 inches in height and is as straight as a dart, Princess Alice is welcomed everywhere. With the natural good sense which distinguished her mother the Princess Louis of Battenberg and her cousin the Queen of Spain, Princess Alice thoroughly identifies herself with the people among whom she has come to live, and whose language she set herself studiously to acquire even before her marriage. There is no merrier couple in Greece than this youthful royal pair, upon whom sit no cares of State, but with whom is merely the joy of living. Princess Alice's personal assistance and friendly interest are at once enlisted for any object of a charitable nature or at any social function where they could lend adornment and *éclat*.

Prince Christopher, the fifth son of the King, who is so frequently a welcome visitor to London, which he loves, was born at Paulovsky (St. Petersburg) on the 29th of July, 1888. In the Greek army he has been accorded the rank of Sub-Lieutenant of Infantry.

The Third Generation

The two children of the late Princess Alexandra are the Grand Duchess Maria Paulovna, who was born at St. Petersburg on the 6th of April, 1890, and was married to Prince Anedris William of Germany in 1907; and the Grand Duke Demetrius Paulovitz, who was born at Illinscoye, near Moscow, on the 6th of September, 1891.

CHAPTER III

The Cabinet—M. Eleutherios Vénizélos, Prime Minister and Minister of War—M. Stratos, Minister of Marine—M. Jean Tsirimoko, Minister of Public Instruction — M. André Michalacopoulos, Minister of Commerce, Agriculture, and National Economy—M. Manuel Répoulis, Minister of the Interior — M. Lambros A. Coromilas, Minister for Foreign Affairs—M. A. Diomidis, Minister of Finance — M. Constantine Ractivan — M. Dimitralopoulos, Minister of Justice—M. E. A. Benachi—M. J. Gryparis—M. D. Rhallys — M. G. Theotokes — M. M. K. Mavromichalis — M. Stephanos Dragoumis—M. Demetrius P. Gournaris—M. A. Zaimes —M. A. Alexandris.

M. ELEUTHERIOS VÉNIZÉLOS was born in 1864 on Cerigo Island and educated at the Athens University, completing his studies at Lausanne, Switzerland. Returning to his own island after a thorough course of education, M. Vénizélos soon became intimately associated with the chiefs of all political parties, among whom he soon attained a position of commanding influence. He became especially intimate with Dr. Demetrius Sphakianaki, who was also one of the most trusted and esteemed of Cretan politicians, holding high office among them until he permanently retired, somewhat disappointed at the trend of events.

In 1896 M. Vénizélos took a prominent part in the Cretan revolt, and when the warships of the Powers bombarded the Cape of Malaxa, near Canea, he held the fortress with a loyal band of friends. From this time onwards M. Vénizélos' political career began. With the arrival of Prince George of Greece in 1898 the regeneration of the island commenced, and when

HIS EXCELLENCY M. E. VÉNIZÉLOS, PRESIDENT OF THE COUNCIL OF MINISTERS AND MINISTER OF WAR. (See p. 52.)

Dr. Sphakianaki declined to assume the position of leader under the Prince's administration, M. Vénizélos was offered and accepted the post of one of the Council to the High Commissioner.

M. Vénizélos continued to serve the island with great loyalty and ability until August, 1909, when he was unanimously invited by the Party of Reform to go to Athens ; and this he did. In November of 1910 M. Vénizélos and his party were returned with a large majority ; he held until this year the dual portfolios of War and of Marine, as well as the position of President of the Council of Ministers. As Minister for the sister-services he displayed a great capacity in administration, since he has a profound practical knowledge of military and naval affairs. In March of the present year M. Vénizélos and his party were again returned with an overwhelming majority, gaining no fewer than 150 out of a total of 181 seats. In the month of May M. Vénizélos abandoned the post of Minister of Marine, bestowing the portfolio upon M. Stratos.

M. Lambros Coromilas, ex-Minister of Finance and Minister for Foreign Affairs, commenced his diplomatic career as Greek Consul-General in Salonika (Turkey), later on being promoted to the position of Greek Minister Plenipotentiary to the United States, an office which he held with great distinction, until he was summoned by M. Vénizélos to join the Cabinet formed in September, 1910, as Minister of Finance.

M. Coromilas has proved to be the regenerator of his country's finances and the conserver of its economic resources. Much of the success which has attended the Government of M. Vénizélos has been occasioned by the co-operation of his former Finance Minister, who had displayed so marked a grasp of the late monetary situation, and had made so complete a study of the prevailing conditions, that he had been enabled to raise the financial standing of the country to a higher

pinnacle of solidity than it has occupied since its emancipation from Turkish dominance.

M. Coromilas, however, embarked with an equipment for his task which but few Ministers of Finance have possessed. Having passed the Universities of Tübingen (Würtemburg) and the École Libre des Sciences Politiques, of Paris, with the highest degrees, he became chief editor of one of the most important newspapers that Greece has known, while he also visited the different countries of Europe and North America, where he carefully studied and pondered the economic and financial problems which they presented. These experiences, together with the intense interest which he evinced in all questions affecting the monetary conditions of his own country, peculiarly well fitted him for his position of Minister of Finance.

M. Coromilas returned from Washington to Athens —*en congé*—in the month of July, 1910, and in the following September he was called upon to accept the portfolio of Finance. This responsible office he had occupied until lately, while in the month of last May (1912) he accepted the additional portfolio of Foreign Affairs, which, however, he felt that he could do with safety, since he had placed the finances of the kingdom upon so sound a basis as to have removed all present cause for anxiety. M. Coromilas is married to a very charming and popular American lady, formerly Miss Anna Cockrell, and a daughter of the United States Senator Cockrell.

The successor of M. Coromilas at the Finance Ministry is M. Alexandre Diomidis, who ranks among the youngest of the members of the Cabinet, being but thirty-six years of age. M. Diomidis was appointed towards the end of August last, and he has already proved the wisdom which dictated his choice. Studying in Leipzig, where he took high honours, he subsequently went to Paris, where, again, he distinguished himself, especially in jurisprudence and political economy.

During his stay for some years at the Athens University as *privat-docent* he devoted himself to literature, having published a remarkable work upon the Budget and edited the lectures upon constitutional law delivered by his grandfather, Professor Diomidis, who was Professor at the University and President of the National Assembly in 1863. M. Alexandre Diomidis attended as the Greek Delegate at the Hague Conference of 1907, concerning which event he also published a notable work. In 1909 he was appointed Prefect of Athens, but resigned in the following year in order that he might become the Member for the Island of Spetzai. The new Minister played an important part in the last revisional Chamber, having been requested to draft the Bill on the Communities, which is now coming into force.

M. Manuel Repoulis, Minister of the Interior and Home Affairs, commenced his career as a journalist. He has devoted a great deal of attention to the study of political economy, and in the Chamber of Deputies his opinions are always listened to with great interest and respect. Besides proving himself a capable administrator, M. Repoulis has displayed the qualities of a first-class orator. Before assuming the position of Minister, he acted for some years as Chief Secretary of the Ministry of Finance, which fact has given him a thorough experience in financial matters. He is still a young man, which enables him to pursue the duties of his office with more than usual activity and thoroughness. Upon several occasions M. Repoulis has proved the interest he takes in his office by making personal examinations into such matters as sanitation, public health, the erection of new buildings, &c. He is also one of the several hard-working Ministers of the Cabinet.

In the month of May last (1912) several important changes took place in the personnel of the Cabinet, consequent upon the resignation of two of the Ministers,

the retirement of another, and the departure of a fourth in order to resume his ambassadorial duties in a neighbouring State. Upon the eve of the assembly of the Chamber of Deputies (namely, May 18th–30th), the Ministers of the Cabinet held a meeting in order to discuss what governmental measures should be adopted with a view to obviate trouble consequent upon the expressed determination of the Cretan Deputies to take their seats in the Athens Chamber. Opposite views were entertained by the Prime Minister (M. Vénizélos) and the Minister of Justice (M. Dimitricopoulos), who consequently resigned his portfolio. His place was filled by the appointment of M. Constantine Ractivan. Three other new appointments followed shortly afterwards, M. Tsirimoko replacing M. Alexandris as Minister of Public Instruction and Ecclesiastical Affairs ; M. Michalacopoulos taking over the portfolio resigned by M. Emmanuel A. Benachi, the first Minister of Commerce, Agriculture, and National Economy ; and M. Lambros Coromilas accepting, temporarily, the office of Minister for Foreign Affairs while retaining his own portfolio of Minister of Finance. Finally, M. Stratos relieved the Prime Minister of the office of Minister of Marine, which he had hitherto held in conjunction with the dual posts of Premier and Minister of War.

M. Nicolas Stratos, Minister of Marine, although still a young man, being little more than forty years of age, has already rendered valuable services to the country as a politician, his career in the Chamber of Deputies having been a particularly brilliant and successful one. From July 5 to August 28, 1909, M. Stratos acted as Minister of the Interior in the Cabinet of M. Rhallys, his resignation following upon the military revolution of that period. Somewhat later he was elected President of the Revisionary Chamber (the previous Assembly having been dissolved), a position which he resigned, however, owing to a personal

difference with the Minister of Justice. The strong and vigorous temperament possessed by M. Stratos, coupled with his unquestioned ability as an administrator, create the impression that he will prove himself a valuable adjunct to an already powerfully constituted Cabinet.

M. Jean Tsirimoko, the Minister of Public Instruction and Ecclesiastical Affairs, is by profession a lawyer, and is aged about forty-five. Enjoying a sound reputation as a clever and eloquent pleader, Mr. Tsirimoko made a name at the Bar very early in his career. He commenced his political life in the year 1890, when he declared himself in sympathy with the ideas which prompted the revolution. He became President of the Revisionary Chamber upon the resignation of M. Stratos, and subsequently President of the present Chamber of Deputies.

M. André Michalacopoulos, Minister of Commerce, Agriculture, and National Economy, is also a distinguished jurist, being well informed not alone upon legal questions and those of international law, but upon those relating to foreign interests such as would come well within the scope of his important office. Like his predecessor, the amiable and popular M. Emmanuel A. Benachi, M. Michalacopoulos is a very competent linguist. In the Double Chamber, of which he has for some time been one of the foremost members, the new Minister has proved himself as eloquent as well informed upon most subjects. M. Michalacopoulos is another of the several young and brilliant men with whom M. Vénizélos has surrounded himself; he is but thirty-five years of age.

M. Constantine Ractivan, the Minister of Justice, is yet a third skilful and accomplished advocate, having distinguished himself upon many occasions both as a debater and a pleader. His well-known integrity of character and independence of judgment have elicited for him the confidence and the respect of all parties

alike. For some time he was Bâtonnier de l'Ordre des Avocats (President of the Order of French Advocates), and was elected a Deputy for the Revisionary Chamber. M. Ractivan is about forty years of age.

The departure from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs last May of M. Gryparis was regretted by the whole of the foreign Diplomatic Corps, by whom he was deeply respected and as sincerely liked. But the valuable services which M. Gryparis has been enabled to render to his country as Greek Minister at Constantinople have been deemed even more vitally important; thus this distinguished diplomat has gone back to the Porte, where he met with the same genuine welcome as was extended to him during his previous brilliant term of office at this the most responsible of all diplomatic missions of Greece.

M. Emmanuel A. Benachi, the first Minister of Commerce, Agriculture, and National Industry, was born on the island of Syra in December, 1844. He was educated in the Government School (Gymnasium College), from which he proceeded to Manchester, where he studied in the Commercial School for two years. At the age of twenty he left there for Alexandria, where he entered the firm of his relative, M. J. P. Schilizzi, cotton exporter. At the age of twenty-four he left that firm, of which he had become a director, and established himself in Mansurah with his late brother, and where he traded in cotton on his own account.

In 1870 M. Benachi married Miss Choremsi, a sister of Mr. John Choremsi, who, with a wealthy Englishman, Mr. J. P. Mellor, had, in 1864, during the American War, founded the firm of Choremsi, Mellor & Co.

M. Benachi was then invited to join the firm, and shortly afterwards he took over the management of the Alexandria branch. Later, in 1876, he was transferred to Liverpool, where he managed, conjointly with

M. EMMANUEL A. BENACHI, FIRST MINISTER OF AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, AND NATIONAL ECONOMY, RETIRED JUNE, 1912. (See p. 58.)

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Mr. T. Davies, the Liverpool and Manchester branch of the firm.

In 1876 Mr. J. Choremsi and Mr. J. P. Mellor retired, and the name of the firm was changed to Choremsi, Benachi & Co. in Alexandria, and to Davies, Benachi & Co. in Liverpool and Manchester.

The firm, which is still known under these names, made remarkable progress under the direction of M. Benachi, and it has since established branches in Boston, U.S.A., and in Frankfurt-on-Maine, in Germany, with correspondents in Moscow and St. Petersburg (Russia), Kobé and Yokohama (Japan), and Bombay (India). The firm, which exports every year about 140,000 bales of cotton from Egypt, has been at the head of the list of cotton exporters for some time, and it is regarded as the leading British concern in cotton exportation.

A member of the Egyptian Agricultural Society, M. Benachi has long devoted his attention to the promotion of cotton cultivation, and especially to the improvement of the quality of the crop. He has rendered great service to the spinning industry in this direction, as is generally admitted.

M. Benachi was invited by M. Vénizélos to join his Cabinet as an eighth Minister, and to take over the charge of the newly instituted Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and National Industry, which was created on the 1st of January, 1911.

M. Benachi was formerly a member of the Council of the National Bank of Egypt, but he resigned in 1911, and so far his place has not been filled up, it being hoped that upon his retirement from the Ministry of Agriculture, which has occurred on account of weak health, he would resume his former position.

In Alexandria M. Benachi also sat as a member of the Municipal Council from the date of its institution, and was for many years President of the Greek Community. He has devoted large sums to charitable in-

stitutions, having been responsible for the construction of the Benachi Orphanage, as well as of the Economic Kitchens for the non-paying pupils and the poor, which also bear his name.

M. Benachi was returned as Deputy for Attica and Bœotia with the largest majority of any Minister at the last election (March, 1912). He retired, to the great regret of his colleagues and the nation, in May last.

M. Demetrius Rhallys, who has been a member of the Chamber of Deputies (sitting for Attica) for over a quarter of a century and the head of a Ministry upon one important occasion, is a man of great charm of manner, conspicuous ability, and enjoying the esteem of even his most determined political opponents. Moreover, he is a hard and conscientious worker, a voluminous writer, and is frequently at his desk for full twelve hours a day. His first tenure of office was immediately following upon the war of 1897, and his second followed upon the death of M. K. Delyannis, whom he followed as leader of the party. His third term was in July, 1909, when he became Prime Minister and Finance Minister, having as his colleagues in office M. G. Christaki Zographos as Minister for Foreign Affairs; M. N. Stratos, Minister of the Interior; M. E. Manounsogianakis, Minister for War; M. A. Miaoulis, Minister for the navy; M. K. Gerocostopoulos, Minister of Education and Public Worship; and M. E. Delyannis as Minister of Justice. M. Rhallys' conciliatory attitude towards Turkey undoubtedly assisted the situation, bristling, as it was at this time, with difficulties and dangers. Unfortunately, his Ministry lasted barely more than a month, for M. Rhallys handed his resignation to the King on August 29, 1909, when M. Mavromichalis was charged with forming a new Cabinet and which he did with extreme difficulty owing to the Military League, which then existed, insisting upon some startling and

radical reforms. Exceedingly amiable, he is one of the best-liked residents in Athens. All the more surprising was the result of the last elections (March, 1912), when M. Rhallys was practically deserted by his former supporters, and suffered one of the greatest political defeats in his experience.

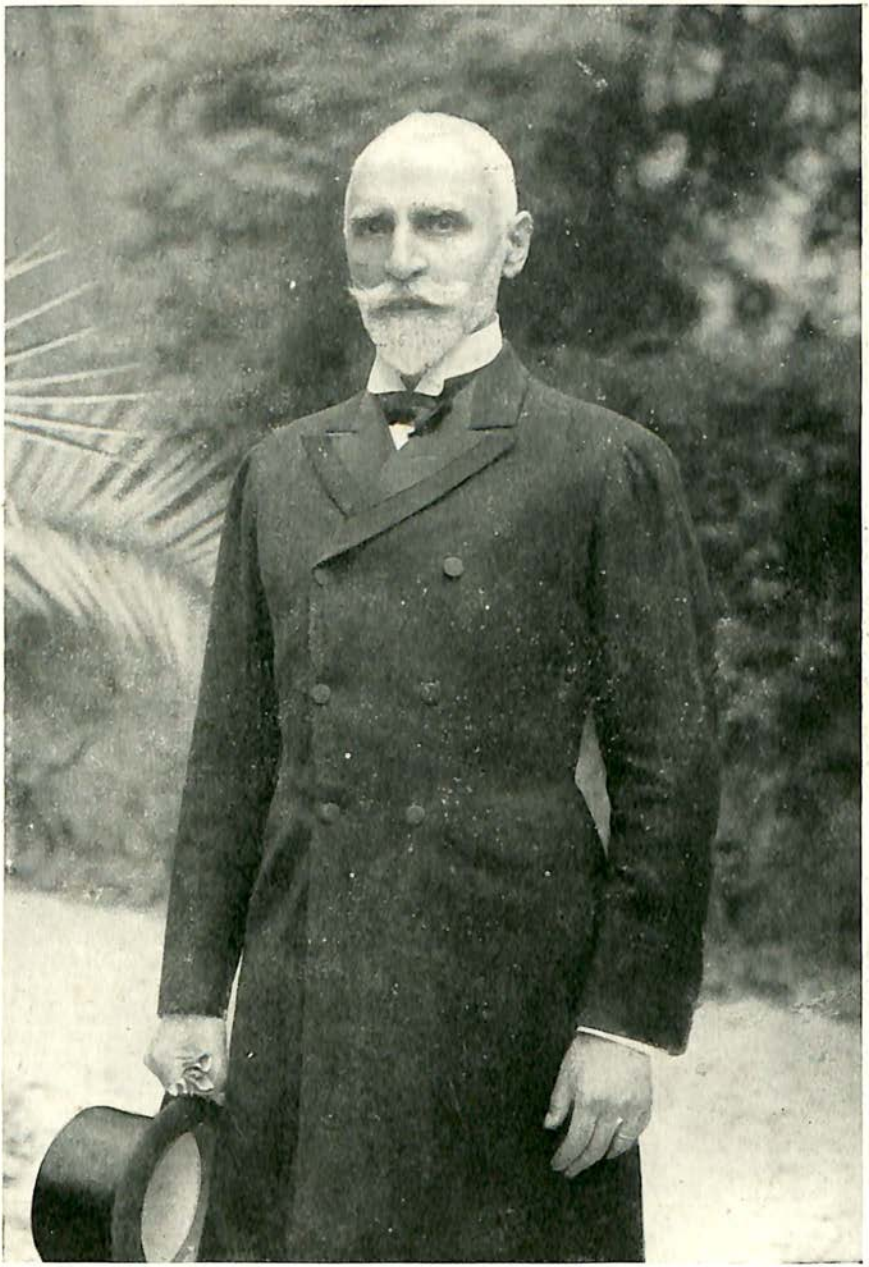
M. Geórgeos Theotokes, who comes of one of the most distinguished Corfu families and who has served the State during the whole of his life in some form or another, has passed through stormy times ; through them all, however, he has ever retained the respect, even if he has lost the active support, of his countrymen. He was the first Ionian to hold the post of Prime Minister, and was upon three different occasions at the head of the Government. Once his office extended to a period of three years, and once it lasted for two weeks. He had formerly served (in 1886) under M. Tricoupes as Minister of Marine, but during his own leadership he had to face great unpopularity.[1] At the last elections so severe were his defeats that it is thought highly probable that the ex-Minister, who is now getting old and less inclined to slave away in office, will retire permanently from politics, and live almost entirely at his beautiful estate in Corfu.

The appreciative virtues of the Corfiotes with regard to their political duties was manifested early in the month of last May upon the occasion of the visit of M. E. Vénizélos to Corfu to visit the King and the Kaiser. Corfu, as I have already pointed out, is not only the birthplace but the political stronghold of M. Vénizélos' most bitter opponent, M. Theotokes ; nevertheless it was here that the Prime Minister met with his most enthusiastic reception, the police having all that they could do to prevent the people from crushing him to death in their vigorous adoration and taking him through the streets shoulder high.

[1] In July, 1908, M. Theotokes, while retaining the Premiership and the portfolio of the Minister of War, re-formed the whole of his Cabinet.

The name of Mavromichalis is one of the most celebrated in Greece, and it may be found figuring in the history of the State with the greatest frequency. The exploits at Nauplia of Petro Bey, of Mane, of the brother who shot the first President of the Greek Republic, John Kapodistries, as he was coming out of church, and of the several Mavromichalis who distinguished themselves in the wars against the Turks, are remembered and commented upon to this day. The former head of the house, M. M. Kyriakoules Mavromichalis, the head of a strong political party—not as strong as it was once, but still exercising some influence and possessing members in the Chamber of Deputies—was leader of the third political faction. In 1909, as already mentioned, he became Prime Minister as well as Minister for Foreign Affairs and temporarily Minister of War upon the resignation of M. Rhallys. He held office until October, 1910. M. Mavromichalis speaks English perfectly and writes admirably in French. He is a very cultured, charming man, kind and hospitable and ever courteous to the stranger who is fortunate enough to gain access to his door.

Possessed of many personal charms and of sterling worth, such as even his most convinced political opponents would concede to him, M. Stephanos Dragoumis, who is of Macedonian descent, is one of the most distinguished of living Greeks. In March of 1905 he was elected at the head of the poll at Attica, becoming Prime Minister and Minister of Finance in January, 1910, and resigning his position in October of the same year. M. Dragoumis' programme was one of reconciliation between the army (that is to say the Military League) and the Royal Family as well as between the different political parties. His aim also was general reform and a revision of the Constitution. In the latter undertaking he was successful, having formed a Parliament consisting of double the number of deputies.



M. LAMBROS COROMILAS, MINISTER FOR FOREIGN AFFAIRS AND FORMERLY MINISTER OF FINANCE. (See p. 53.)

[To face p. 63.

MM. Dragoumis and Zaimes

In 1907-8 M. Dragoumis, while a simple Deputy and independent of any political party, succeeded in effecting a land-settling scheme by means of which numerous poor but industrious families were granted Government lands for agricultural purposes, an excellent enterprise in which, also, Greek refugees from Bulgaria, who had poured into the kingdom after the deplorable events of 1906 in Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia, were permitted to participate.

M. Stephanos Dragoumis has now retired permanently from the political arena, and devotes himself assiduously to literary work. He is both a graceful and a forcible writer, and he is considered yet as one of the most accomplished orators of the day.

Son of a former Prime Minister and himself twice Prime Minister, at least nominally, M. Alexandros Zaimes has long been regarded as "a dark horse" in modern politics. He comes of a very old and a very distinguished family, his birthplace being Kalavryta, a small town of two thousand inhabitants much frequented by Greek families as a pleasant summer resort. Usually found upon the side of M. Theotokes, he has latterly given his adhesion and his confidence to M. Vénizélos. Nevertheless, he was formerly allied to M. Delyannis—being his nephew—but to the latter's political ideas he was always opposed. He is a very taciturn and shy man, his principal amusement, when not engaged in politics, being fishing. He is also known variously as "The Mute" and "The Man with the Moustache." He is very well informed, taking great interest in Greek literary subjects, and being President of the Society for the Spread of Greek Literature. When Prince George of Greece retired from the High Commissionership of Crete, his Majesty the King appointed M. Alexandros Zaimes to succeed him, and undoubtedly under his wise administration these brave and restless people remained fairly quiet and the island prosperous.

M. Demetrius P. Gounaris, who is one of the most important factors in the political world of Greece to-day, was born in Patras in the year 1867. He graduated at the University of Athens, and studied law and political sciences at Goettingen, Leipzig, and Berlin. Commencing to practise as a barrister before the Patras law-courts in 1892, he attained almost immediately a prominent position at the Bar. Ten years later he entered politics as one of the Members of Parliament for the Patras electoral district. Here, again, he made his mark as soon as he entered the Chamber, being speedily recognised as a man of talent, a consummate debater, and an orator of power and charm—in fact, as a man who would eventually attain to the highest offices in the State.

M. Gounaris lost his seat in 1905, but re-entered Parliament in 1906 at the head of the poll. In 1908 he took office under M. Theotokes, as Minister of Finance, with a programme of radical financial reforms. His Budget for 1909, although supported by the Prime Minister and the Cabinet, met with hesitation in the ranks of the ministerial party, and was adversely criticised in the press. To facilitate the difficult position of the Government, M. Gounaris left the Cabinet, but he continued to act with M. Theotokes, whose eventual successor he was tacitly recognised to be. Once more elected for Patras to the first revisionary Assembly, M. Gounaris abstained with the other party leaders from proceeding at the elections to the second ballot. At the recent general election (March, 1912) however, he stood yet again for Patras, and was elected as an Independent.

M. Apostolo Alexandris, ex-Minister of Public Instruction, is still Member for Karditza, in Thessaly, and was, until his resignation, the youngest member of the Cabinet as well as of the Chamber of Deputies. He was also one of the first Thessalian Members to raise the landed property question in the Chamber

for the amelioration of the peasantry, and he always showed remarkable aptitude in the conduct of the multitudinous affairs of his office. He introduced many important reforms into the educational (both college and school) systems of the State, while he has shown himself to possess a thorough knowledge of law, having studied at the law universities in both Germany and Austria. His successor is carrying on his good work.

CHAPTER IV

Government—Departments—Ministry of Foreign Affairs—Ministry of Interior—Ecclesiastical Affairs and Public Instruction—Ministry of War and Marine—Ministry of Commerce, National Economy, and Agriculture—Ministry of Justice—Ministry of Finance—Ministers' salaries—Official hours—New Chamber of Deputies—Rearrangement of political divisions—New legislation effected—M. Vénizélos' record to date.

THE Government is composed of the following eight Departments, in addition to the Prime Minister :—

1. Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
2. Ministry of the Interior.
3. Ministry of Ecclesiastical Affairs and Public Instruction.
4. Ministry of War.
5. Ministry of Marine.
6. Ministry of Commerce, National Economy, and Agriculture.
7. Ministry of Justice.
8. Ministry of Finance.

Under the present administration the portfolio of War is held by the Prime Minister (*M. E. Vénizélos*), but the affairs of each department are carried on in their respective buildings.

The Ministerial Council is composed of all the different Ministers forming the Cabinet, with M. Vénizélos as the President.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which occupies a handsome building in the Rue des Philhellènes, comprises six different sections—namely, (1) Political, (2) Foreign Conventions, (3) Consular, (4) Accounts,

(5) Royal Affairs and Decorations, (6) Register of Deeds and Archives.

The Ministry of the Interior, with offices in the Rue du Stade and the Rue de Dragatzaniou, has, besides five Departments or Sections, three Subsections. The Sections are as follows: (1) Administrative, (2) Communal, (3) Public Sanitation, (4) Police, (5) Accounts. The Subsections are: (*a*) Shipping, (*b*) Archives and Agreements, (*c*) Census.

This Ministry is a highly important one, since it has under its control the whole of the local administration, as well as that of the capital. Each of the sixteen Departments, or Nomoi, the names of which are given on page 73, has its own Prefect, while each of the different Communes has its Mayor.

The sections relating to Agriculture and National Economy, formerly under the Ministry of the Interior, were in January of 1911 formed into a separate Ministry, with offices in the Rue du Stade.

The Ministry of Ecclesiastical Affairs and Public Instruction consists of four main sections: (1) Religious Affairs, with a Chief of Section and 1st Class Secretary; (2) Superior Education, with Chief of Section and 1st Class Secretary; (3) Secondary Instruction, with Chief of Section, one private Secretary, and one 1st Class Secretary; (4) Primary Instruction, with an Inspector-General and Chief of Section.

The National University, with its affiliated institutions—all the hospitals, asylums, orphan homes, schools, colleges, and gymnasiums, and institutions for commercial and industrial instruction—are likewise within the jurisdiction of this important department of the Government.

The Ministry of War has a large personnel, divided into separate sections for each branch of the army, such as the infantry, the artillery, the cavalry, the engineers, the medical service corps, the equipment corps, &c. There is a Commander-in-Chief, a position

for some time held with much distinction by his Royal Highness the Crown Prince, who is now Inspector-General of the army. The composition of the forces is set forth in full under the chapter devoted to the army.

The Ministry of Marine is divided into seven different sections: (1) The high officials of Staff rank, (2) stores, (3) accounts, (4) mercantile marine, (5) lighthouses, (6) marine engineers, (7) record office. The whole of the naval instruction is conducted from this department of Government, as well as the Arsenal, the Military Courts, lighthouse and beacon regulations, and all such matters as are under the control of our Trinity House.

The Ministry of Agriculture, Commerce, and National Economy, established, as already mentioned, as recently as January 1, 1911, from the first proved a conspicuous success, helping to invigorate agricultural enterprise in the country and to encourage the cultivation of such products as cotton, tobacco, &c., in a manner never before attempted. Undoubtedly the appointment of M. Emmanuel Benachi as the First Minister was responsible for the excellent start made by the new department. Having set all the machinery in active motion, M. Benachi, unfortunately, retired this year from office; but his unrivalled experience, especially in regard to the cultivation of cotton, and his shrewd advice will happily still be available for the assistance of his successor and the encouragement of the excellent and devoted staff which he has gathered around him.

Under this Ministry has also been placed the working of the Mines and Forests, which were formerly directed from the Ministry of Finance.

The Ministry of Justice is divided into three main sections, consisting of (1) Personnel, (2) Accounts and Records, (3) Prisons Administration. These, again, are subdivided into departments, each with its own head officials, and the course of procedure is now much

better arranged and the former delays in the affairs of justice considerably reduced. Improvements continue to be introduced under the regime of the present able and strong Minister, who has also undertaken the task of remodelling the entire prison system of the kingdom.

The salaries paid to the Ministers of the Crown are extremely moderate, amounting to but £37 per month, with an additional £20 per month for "carriage hire." The Prime Minister, M. Vénizélos, receives no more than £40 per month, assuredly as modest a remuneration for a Head of the Government as could be found in any civilised community in the world.

All Government appointments are now made by strict competition, and promotion is no longer dependent upon the goodwill, nor its denial upon the prejudices, of Ministers or heads of departments. To each department there is attached a Committee composed of seven members, three of whom only are officials holding appointments in such departments, while four (thus constituting a majority) are either professors of University or judges of the High Court. It is difficult to conceive a more effectual method of preserving a spirit of complete independence than this, nor a principle more completely fair and just to the minor officials engaged in Government service.

Few of the Ministers are wealthy men, and the manner in which they devote themselves to the work of their offices, being found at their desks from as early as eight o'clock in the morning—upon occasions—until long past ten o'clock at night, proves that their tenure of office is entirely devoid of self-gain or any idea of personal advantage. In fact, it may be said of all the politicians who have from time to time held office in the Greek Government that upon no single occasion has the slightest breath of scandal attached to them in regard to enrichment at the expense of the State. Theirs is a record of which they have every reason to feel proud.

Government officials in Greece work longer and more regular hours than those of any other country in Europe or America, and almost double the time which is devoted—grudgingly and shirkingly enough—by the majority of our own highly paid Circumlocution employees. At 9 a.m. most of the Government departmental doors are open, and by 10 a.m. the heads of sections are to be found at their posts. Ministers and Chief Secretaries are also to be interviewed at this comparatively early hour, while the majority of them remain at their desks, allowing for three hours' vacation of their offices between the hours of 12 and 3 p.m., until 8 p.m., and sometimes even later. At times of exceptional pressure work continues up till midnight. It is the same at all the governmental institutions and at the banks, the employees mostly submitting willingly to the extra labour, and without either demanding or receiving any extra remuneration. "Eight-hour days" and "minimum wage" questions have not, as yet, commenced to impede the economic progress of Greece.

Although accommodated in separate buildings, the various departments—finance, war, marine, commerce, justice, and education—are not very widely separated. One day, when funds will permit, it is intended to erect a substantial building in some central position, wherein all of the governmental departments can be housed.

While much progress has undoubtedly been made during the past two or three years, and more is being carried out day by day, the statistical services rendered by the various departments are still insufficient and not always dependable. Considering, however, that the provision of early and reliable official figures dealing with the economic conditions of the country has only recently been deemed an important branch of the Government service, the advance made is already very encouraging, and gives promise of a consistent im-

M. EMMANUEL REPOULIS, MINISTER FOR THE INTERIOR (centre) ; M. JEAN D. TSIRIMOKO, MINISTER OF PUBLIC WORSHIP AND INSTRUCTION (left top) ; M. NICOLÁS STRATOS, MINISTER OF MARINE (right top) ; M. ANDROS MICHALACOPOULOS, MINISTER OF AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, AND NATIONAL ECONOMY (left bottom) ; M. C. D. RACTIVAN, MINISTER OF JUSTICE (right bottom). (See p. 54.)

provement. The spirit of willingness and the desire to profit by friendly criticism are unmistakable factors in Greek officialdom.

The importance of a thoroughly well organised and dependable Statistical Department is recognised by all Governments alike as necessary to the development of the country's economic resources and the obtaining of the national revenue; and that of Greece is no exception. Unfortunately, however, until quite recently the earnest desire which has undoubtedly existed to establish and maintain such a governmental section has proved impossible of realisation. Nevertheless, a beginning has been made, under the able lead of M. Cofinas, of the Department of Finance, and inasmuch as the beginning of a work stands for the whole—*pro toto est prima operis pars*—there is good reason to hope that the results hereafter will prove all that one could desire.

M. Gounarakis, the Minister of Finance in 1905, commenced to found a statistical department, but he remained in office insufficiently long to enable his efforts to result in any appreciable advantage. His idea was to establish his information bureau upon the principles adopted with so much success by France, Italy, and Germany, and the same policy will be pursued by the present occupant of the Department.

So unaccustomed, however, are Greek minor officials, especially those appointed in the provinces, to collect and to tabulate the details of their own sections, that they are usually found at a complete loss how to proceed. Were their actions as forceful and as spontaneous as their promises, Greece would be fortunately in the possession of a mass of valuable economic information, while the world generally would learn much about her commercial and industrial progress which is at present unknown, and still more about the future economic development than is at present dreamed of. But, alas! of the ordinary type of minor official in

Greece, as in other parts of the world, it must be admitted that zeal oft outruns promise.

The New Chamber of Deputies, which was elected by public suffrage on March 11, 1912, is composed of five different groups, the most numerous being those of M. Vénizélos' followers. The composition of the Parliament is as follows: Vénizélos, 150; Theotokes, 10; Rhallys, 4; Mavromichalis, 8; Zaimes, 4; Independents, 5. The districts from which they have been returned are: Attica and Bœotia, Achaia and Elis, Arcadia, Argolis and Corinth, Arta, Cephalonia, Corfu, the Cyclades Islands, Ætolia and Arcanania, Eubœa, Hydra, Lakonia, Larissa, Messenia, Nea-Psara, Phthiotis and Phocis, Spetzai, Trikkala, and Zante. It will be observed that there are nineteen electoral divisions comprising the three small islands Hydra, Spetzai, and Néa-Psara.

The first meeting of the new Chamber was convened for, and duly held on, June 1st last, and the Chamber was then prorogued until October 14th. Owing to the troubles arising over Crete, the King had postponed the opening day for one month to obviate the difficulty of the entrance of Cretan Deputies into the Chamber.

The majority which M. Vénizélos has in the Chamber of Deputies is the largest and most cohesive that any Greek Government has hitherto possessed. And it is to be remembered that M. Vénizélos himself was almost unheard of as a rising, or even a possible, politician until his first election in the month of September, 1910. The greatest surprise of all was the defeat of M. Rhallys, who, for upwards of forty years, had been returned by Attica. His many great qualities are generally recognised and admitted by even his most bitter political opponents. The result of his canvass was a minority of 4,023 votes, his supporters recording 25,343 votes in his favour as against 29,366 for the Vénizélist candidate, M. Zavoyannis, a perfectly unknown man, and whom the electors of Attica then met

for the first time. The great influence and authority wielded by M. Vénizélos were amply testified to by this occurrence among others.

Previous to the rearrangement of the country's political divisions, which came into force last year (1911), the order of divisions was as follows:—

Name of Nomos.	Area in sq. m.	Population.	Name of Nomos.	Area in sq. m.	Population.
1. Attica ...	883	341,247	14. Trikkala ...	1,181	90,548
2. Arcadia ...	1,660	162,324	15. Triphylia ...	623	90,523
3. Achaia ...	1,252	150,918	16. Lacedæmon	1,292	87,106
4. Ætolia and Acarnania	2,876	141,405	17. Argolis ...	1,104	81,943
5. Cyclades ...	1,040	130,378	18. Cephalonia	266	71,235
6. Messenia ...	667	126,991	19. Corinth ...	842	71,229
7. Eubœa ...	1,460	116,903	20. Bœotia ...	1,551	65,816
8. Phthiotis ...	1,783	112,328	21. Phocis ...	787	62,246
9. Elis	707	103,810	22. Lakonia ...	457	61,522
10. Magnesia ...	780	102,742	23. Evrytania ...	856	47,196
11. Kerkyra (Corfu) ...	288	99,571	24. Zakynthos (Zante) ...	169	42,502
12. Larissa ...	1,622	95,066	25. Arta ...	536	41,280
13. Karditza ...	977	92,941	26. Levkas ...	182	41,186

The new partition of the kingdom of Greece in provinces, or Nomoi, has been arranged as follows, thus reducing the number from twenty-six to sixteen :—

1. Attica and Bœotia	Continental Greece
2. Phthiotis and Phocis	
3. Ætolia and Acarnania	
4. Arta	Epirus
5. Larissa and	Thessaly
6. Trikkala	
7. Eubœa and	Archipelago
8. Cyclades	
9. Argolis and Corinth	Peloponnesus
10. Achaia and Elis	
11. Arcadia	
12. Laconia	
13. Messenia	
14. Corfu (Kerkyra)	Ionian Islands
15. Cephalonia	
16. Zante (Zakynthos)	

Few political leaders in any country have shown more remarkable moral courage than M. Vénizélos in facing difficulties of administration—difficulties which few among those who had previously held the reins of government had the pluck or persistency to grapple with. He has not only grasped the nettle—he has effectually crushed it. And the greatest of all the reforms which he has introduced, as it proved the most onerous to deal with, was the establishment of the principle of removal of public officials who failed in the discharge of their duties or who may have become physically incompetent of discharging them to the best public advantage.

The error of purely political appointments, so common, I might even say so inevitable, in the Latin-American Republics, had long stood in the way of material progress in Greece; that M. Vénizélos should have effectually and, as may be believed, for all time removed this abuse will for ever redound to his credit and cause his administration to be remembered in gratitude and respect long after both it and he have passed away. The principle having been established, the way has been thrown open for more perfect and permanent reform; political jobbery will gradually be abolished, increased powers will be apportioned to the executive at the most urgently necessary times, the public service will be vastly better conducted, and politics generally will be cleansed of corruption.

Nor has this been the only reformation which M. Vénizélos' Government, young and almost untried, has already effected. Since he has been in office he has revised the whole Constitution; he has transferred the responsibility for gratuitous primary education from the local (and mostly incompetent) authorities to the State; he has created a Council of State charged with the double duties of acting as a consultative body and assisting in drafting Bills for presentation to the Chamber of Deputies; he broadened the functions of

the Supreme Court in dealing with administrative abuses; he reduced the quorum necessary for the transaction of business by the Legislative Assembly; he introduced much-needed reforms of procedure in the Chamber so as to effectually guard against hasty and insufficiently discussed new measures; he widened the electoral law; he removed the unfair restriction which made two years' residence in any one constituency obligatory before any qualification for election purposes could be bestowed, and at the same time he reduced the age limit at which Deputies could be elected; he transferred the verification of the mandates of Deputies from the naturally-biased Chamber to a special and independent legal tribunal; and he completed this long list of useful and timely measures by facilitating future revision of the non-fundamental provisions of the Constitution after ten years.

The actual new legislation carried out since has included: judicial reforms which will greatly facilitate and expedite legal procedure, which had hitherto been carried on in a shamefully indifferent manner; a new land-tax levied upon arable property, which has by no means proved itself popular, and which is referred to more fully elsewhere; an income-tax, which has yet to become effective, and upon which I have also had some observations to make elsewhere; and a number of minor enactments which will, when they become better understood and more generally appreciated, help to make the conditions of the people more prosperous and the carrying on of local government more humane and more wholesome.

Then the army has been entirely reorganised under a French Military Mission, of which General Eydoux is the head; the local gendarmerie force has been subjected to the same wholesale and much-needed regeneration at the hands of Italian officers; and the navy has secured the services of one of our own distinguished seamen—Admiral Lionel G. Tufnell, who

with his staff of British officers has wrought wonders with the fine material which the Greek mariners afford. These subjects will be found to have been more fully dealt with under their respective captions—"The Army," "The Navy," and "The Police."

CHAPTER V

Diplomatic Corps—Greek Legations abroad—Consular offices—Importance of Ministers at Constantinople and London—M. Gennadius, Greek Minister to St. James'—His valuable services to Greece—Foreign diplomatists at Athens—Consuls and Vice-Consuls—British Representatives at Piræus, Patras, Zante, Crete, &c.—Former British Minister, Sir E. H. Egerton—Old-time hospitality at British Legation—Spanish Consul at Athens—U.S.A. Consul Cooke at Patras — Vice-Consular Reports — M. Calocherino's Services at Candia (Crete).

THE Greeks sent ambassadors to neighbouring States two thousand years ago, although they were limited to extraordinary occasions. We all know how Alexander the Great, the Unifier of the Greeks, punished Tyre for the insult which was offered by that town to his ambassador. Since then the Hellenes became by the fortunes, or misfortunes, of war a subject nation under the Romans and Byzantines, and the Ottomans by turn; but so soon as they became once more an independent kingdom the important privilege of sending ambassadors to other nations was resumed.

The Diplomatic Corps to-day is composed of different Ministers accredited to the kingdom of Greece and those who represent the kingdom in other countries. These latter consist of Great Britain and the Netherlands, Germany, France and Spain, the United States of America, Servia, Roumania, Turkey, Italy, Russia, Montenegro, and Austria-Hungary.

The Foreign Legations established in Greece (Athens) comprise Germany, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Spain, United States of America, France, Great Britain, Italy, the Netherlands, Russia, Persia, Servia,

and Turkey. In addition to the Legations all the above-named countries maintain Consular offices, the number of commercial representatives in each State being as follows :—

Germany, 13 ; Great Britain, 15 ; Austria-Hungary, 12 ; Belgium, 10 ; Denmark, 4 ; Spain, 8 ; United States of America, 4 ; France, 29 ; Italy, 16 ; Norway, 9 ; Netherlands, 11 ; Portugal, 6 ; Russia, 10 ; Servia 4 ; Sweden, 5 ; Turkey, 13 ; and Roumania, 5. There are also Consuls representing Persia, Brazil, Ecuador, and Venezuela.

The Foreign Diplomatic Corps at Athens is made up as follows, the countries represented being placed in order of seniority :—

Great Britain.—Sir Francis E. H. Elliot.
Servia.—M. Mathias St. Boshkovitch.
Italy.—The Marquis A. Carlotti di Ripar Cella.
Germany.—The Baron von Wangenheim (since transferred).
Holland.—Yonkheer J. E. de Sturler.
Spain.—The Marquis de Prat de Nantouillet.
Austria-Hungary.—The Baron Charles von Braun.
United States.—Mr. George H. Moses.
France.—M. Gabriel Deville.
Persia.—(Minister always absent.)
Bulgaria.—M. P. Hadje Mischef.
Belgium.—M. Joseph Mallor.
Roumania.—M. Alexandre Floresco.
Russia.—Serje Nicolievitch Sverbeen, who has recently been appointed Ambassador in Berlin.
Turkey.—Mirikhtar Bey.

The Greek Consular Corps, which is a very ample one, is divided into four categories : Consuls de Carrière, Consuls, Vice-Consuls, Honorary Consuls, and Consular Agents. In those countries where no Greek Consuls are maintained, all Hellenic subjects are entrusted to the care of the Consuls of other countries. Thus in Abyssinia, Bagdad, and Zanzibar Greek subjects are under the flag of Great Britain ; in Argentina, Morocco, Central America, Dominica, Monaco, Servia

(provisionally), and in the Transvaal they are under the flag of France; in Colombia and Panama (South and Central America) they are under that of the United States; and in Mexico under the flag of Spain.

The large and expensive Diplomatic Service which is maintained by Greece is the outcome of the determination to be efficiently and befittingly represented at the foreign Courts of the world. And the resolution is a wise one; the country demands it. The political relations existing between Greece and most of the European countries are decidedly different to those of any other independent State, and the best and most talented, as well as the most discreet, men can alone be selected for the positions.

The most onerous of the diplomatic posts is that of Constantinople, as may well be believed, in view of the dangerous proximity of the Ottomans and of the insensate hatred which they have always exhibited for the Greeks. Fortunately, the post of Greek Minister accredited to the Porte is now filled for the second time by a thoroughly capable and experienced statesman, M. Gryparis, who recently resigned the position of Minister of Foreign Affairs, which he held in M. Vénizélos' Cabinet, in order to resume this important and responsible position. The appointment carries with it a salary of 54,000 drachmæ, which includes an allowance for social entertainments. Fortunately also, M. Gryparis is a man possessed of some private wealth; both he and his wife are extremely hospitable, especially to strangers.

Other diplomatic appointments of consequence are to the six Legations at London, Berlin, Paris, Vienna, St. Petersburg, and Rome. The salaries attached to these posts are 44,000 drachmæ apiece. The Legations established in the neighbouring States of Roumania and Servia carry salaries of 31,000 drachmæ, those of Bulgaria and Egypt 21,000 drachmæ. An extensive list of consular appoint-

ments, representatives being dispatched to every part of the civilised world, bring up the diplomatic and consular list to a considerable amount. But, again, it may be urged that such expenditure is abundantly justified, more particularly in the case of an economically expanding country like Greece, and one, moreover, having twice as many at least of her sons living abroad under foreign dominion.

M. John Gennadius, the Greek Minister accredited to the Court of St. James', was born in 1844. The second son of the famous George Gennadius, Greek scholar and patriot—surnamed "the Saviour of his Country"—he was at an early age put under British tutors, which fact partly accounts for his perfect command of the English language. At Athens he continued his studies at the Gymnasium, and subsequently attended the University. When still young, and being desirous of obtaining experience in financial questions in London, he entered the office of the Ralli Brothers, and also contributed frequently to the press upon Greek subjects.

One article in particular, written for the *Morning Star* in 1870, created enormous interest, and secured for the young and brilliant author the offer of the Secretaryship of the Greek Legation in Washington.

M. Gennadius, however, first served three years as Secretary of Legation at Constantinople before he came to London in 1874, remaining here as Chargé d'Affaires all through the Russian War of 1877-8, and continuing right up to the time of the Congress of Berlin, having been chosen to accompany the Greek Delegate M. Delyannis, the Minister for Foreign Affairs.

It was due entirely to M. Gennadius' most able advocacy of Greek interests before the Stock Exchange Committee in 1879 that Greek stocks were granted a quotation in the official lists, after an exclusion of fifty years from the London markets.

After serving again at Constantinople and Vienna,

HIS EXCELLENCY M. J. GENNADIUS, HIS HELLENIC MAJESTY'S MINISTER AT THE COURT OF ST. JAMES. (See p. 80.)

M. Gennadius

M. Gennadius returned once more to London in 1885, and for the third time he was appointed Chargé d'Affaires. In the following year he was raised to the grade of Minister Resident, and at the same time accredited to The Hague. In 1888 he went to Washington as Representative of Greece, being thus accredited to three different and distinct countries simultaneously. In 1891 M. Gennadius was raised to the rank of Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

No reference to the commercial and financial aspects of Greece would be complete without attention being directed to the important Commercial Convention made between that country and Great Britain in 1890. By the terms of this Convention the duty upon currants was reduced from 7s. to 2s. per cwt., a boon which Greece had been vainly endeavouring to secure for many years. This resulted from the splendid efforts of a representative committee appointed by the London Dried Fruit Trade at a meeting of the different branches held in Mincing Lane in the autumn of 1888. The Convention was signed by Lord Salisbury and Mr. Gennadius. The Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. (afterwards Viscount) Goschen, in referring to the Convention, said in his Budget speech of 1890: "Great credit is due for the success of the negotiations to the talented Greek Minister to this Court." It is little surprising that the entire Diplomatic Corps considered this verbatim tribute far more honourable to M. Gennadius than any grand *cordon* that could have been bestowed upon him.

Always *persona grata* with the members of the British Royal Family, M. J. Gennadius was personally proposed by his late Majesty King Edward VII. as a permanent member of the Marlborough Club. The Greek Minister, who married Florence Laing, a younger daughter of the late Mr. Samuel Laing, Member for the Orkneys, is the author of many valuable publications. He is a D.C.L. of Oxford (*honoris causa*) and LL.D. of St. Andrews University.

The Consul-General for the kingdom of Greece is M. J. J. Stavridi, who has occupied the position with considerable distinction since 1903. M. Stavridi was born in Manchester and educated both at Geneva and Paris. Having been articled to a firm of London solicitors, he was duly qualified as an attorney in 1898. He is a member of the well-known firm of Messrs. Westbury, Preston, and Stavridi, practising solicitors, of 40, Old Broad Street, London, E.C., which is also the address of the Consulate-General for Greece. M. Stavridi is Honorary Secretary to the Association of Foreign Consuls in London and Chairman of the Hellenic Benevolent Fund.

The British Diplomatic and Consular Corps in Greece (including the islands) and at Crete (which although not yet "Greek" may, and should, indeed, one day become so) is composed as follows :—

	Salary.
The British Minister, Sir Francis E. Hugh Elliot, G.C.V.O., K.C., M.G.	£3,500
First Secretary of Legation, Mr. H. D. Beaumont ...	500
Naval Attaché, Commander A. C. Stewart, R.N. ...	—
Military Attaché, Lt.-Col. F. Lyon, D.S.O.	—
Second Secretary, Mr. W. Seeds	400
Consul at Piræus, Mr. Charles J. Cooke...	800
Vice-Consul, M. John Joannidis	—
Consul at Patras, Mr. Frederick B. Wood, I.S.O. ...	250
Vice-Consul at Patrás, Mr. Geo. W. Crowe	—
Vice-Consul at Ergasteria	—
Consul at Volo, Mr. A. A. C. E. Merlin	350
Consul at Cyclades, M. John Saliba	150
Consular Agent at Bantorim, M. Baseggio	—
Consular Agent at Seriphos, M. Grohmann	—
Consular Agent at Milo, M. Gialeraki	—
Consul at Corfu, Mr. George Raymond...	200
Vice-Consul at Zante, Mr. Edward G. Bonavia... ...	65
Vice-Consul at Cephalonia, Mr. John Saunders... ...	100
Consul-General at Canea, Mr. A. C. Wratislaw, C.B., C.M.G.	1,[illegible]
Vice-Consul at Canea, E. C. D. Rawlins...	400
Vice-Consul at Candia, M. A. Calocherino	—
Vice-Consul at Retimo, M. Teodoro A. Trifilli	—

The Consular Service

There are many British residents in Greece who still regret the departure of Sir Edwin Henry Egerton, formerly British Minister, who, in conjunction with his wife, rendered the Legation a very agreeable and hospitable rendezvous. Sir Edwin's official post is now occupied by Sir Francis Elliot, who had previously been Secretary of the Legation (1890) and Chargé d'Affaires (1892-5). In 1903 he became Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the King of the Hellenes; he received his C.M.G. in 1904 and a K.C.M.G. in the same year.

M. Charles James Cooke replaced Mr. MacDonell at the Piræus in 1910. He was first appointed, at the age of thirty-two, as Vice-Consul at Helsingfors, Finland; he subsequently saw considerable service in Russia, having become Acting-Consul at St. Petersburg between 1886 and 1887 and Vice-Consul at Sebastopol in June of the latter year. Later he was appointed full Consul for the city and port of Helsingfors, as well as for the Grand Duchy of Finland, acting thus between June, 1908, and April, 1910, when he was transferred to the Piræus. Mr. Cooke is immensely popular in Greece, where his administrative ability, kindly nature, and remarkable activity have earned for him not alone the esteem but the sincere regard of the native community and British colony alike.

Patras is particularly well represented in regard to the Consular Service by at least two notable officials, Mr. Frederick Benjamin Wood, H.B. Majesty's representative, who filled that position uninterruptedly since 1874 until he succeeded two years ago as full Consul (upon the death of Mr. Alfred Louis Crowe); and Mr. A. B. Cooke, the United States Consul, who, although a comparatively new official here, has already become generally esteemed, as much for his great abilities as for his personal attractions. Mr. Cooke is rendering great and valuable services to United States trade with Greece, and his reports, published in

the North American official brochures from time to time, are remarkable alike for their shrewd sense as for their accurate information.

One of the most accomplished members of the Consular Corps in Greece is the Spanish Consul, Señor Don Mariano Fábregas Sotelo, whose annual reports form complete and most interesting records of the social, financial, and economic progress of the country to which he is accredited. These publications, which are extremely well printed, usually consist of some 180 pages, and contain elaborate statistical tables which must be of considerable value to Spanish traders, while they may also be advantageously consulted by merchants and financiers of other nationalities, provided the latter understand the Spanish language. Señor Don F. Sotelo is a decided linguist, speaking Italian, French, Greek, and English with equal facility and accuracy.

At Patras the United States are, as stated, efficiently represented in the person of their Consul, Mr. Arthur Bledsoe Cooke, who, although occupying the position only since the month of March, 1910, has already put the affairs of the Consulate into first-class order, with the result that useful commercial information emanates from it as freely as water trickles from a brook. Mr. Cooke was born in Virginia, U.S.A., and has had much experience as an educationist, having been Professor of German and French at the Wofford College (South Carolina), and Director of the Department of Languages at the Throop Polytechnic Institute, Pasadena, California. He has written several books. One of his most useful services at Patras is connected with the advocacy of a new and improved way of packing currants for export, this process now being carried out under police control.

The British Consul and Vice-Consuls at the Ionian Islands are men of great commercial knowledge, as their regular reports to the Board of Trade conclusively show, they could, if they were but allowed to

do so, provide information which would be of value. If the Board of Trade officials would but consent to leave these reports unedited—unless by competent and experienced censors, which but few of these officials are—it would be infinitely more advantageous to the commercial community for whose benefit these trade reviews are compiled. As they leave the hands of their authors they form fairly complete and consecutive records ; as they emanate from the printing press of the Government Department they are as often as not attenuated and emasculated pamphlets of little use to any one.

Mr. Edward Bonavia, the British Vice-Consul at Zante, was formerly Vice-Consul at Syra (Cyclades Islands), serving there from January, 1893, until January, 1901, when he was obliged to resign owing to his appointment as Superintendent of the Eastern Telegraph Company at Zante. In July, 1910, however, on the death of Mr. Alfred L. Crowe, he was reappointed Vice-Consul at that port. Reference has been made elsewhere in this volume to the capable services rendered by Mr. Bonavia in his capacity as Vice-Consul.

M. A. L. Calocherino, Vice-Consul at Candia, Crete, has been in service since 1889, when he was appointed Dragoman at the Consulate by Sir Alfred Beleotti. During the British occupation of the island (1897-8) M. Calocherino was Secretary (for the Greek correspondence) to General Sir Herbert Chermside, the officer commanding the British troops. In company with Colonel Reed he was afterwards besieged and attacked by numerous armed rioters in the Customs House, and at this time Lieutenant Haldane was killed. The Vice-Consulate was also attacked and M. Calocherino (father of the present Vice-Consul and who was then the occupant of the post) was killed, as well as his daughter and grandchild. In 1905 M. A. L. Calocherino received his appointment, and in 1906

he assisted Colonel Panton, officer commanding the British troops, in administering military justice during the insurrection of that year.

Mr. John Saunders, H.B.M.'s Vice-Consul at Cephalonia (Ionian Islands), took over the duties of Acting Vice-Consul in 1877 upon the death of his uncle, George A. Toole, Manager of the Ionian Bank. He was appointed Vice-Consul in 1880, with an office allowance of £150 per annum, upon condition that the Government building occupied by him as a Consular residence should be maintained by him in a fit state of repair. Considering what an "earthquaky" place is Cephalonia, this was a very shrewd if not a very honourable stipulation upon the part of the British Foreign Office. Mr. Saunders has, however, not only faithfully complied with the terms of his appointment to this day, but he has executed considerable structural work and decorations. Nevertheless, the magnanimous British Government has reduced the Consular allowance from £150 to £100, taking no recognition of the fact, either, that Mr. Saunders has expended £245 out of his own pocket upon general and substantial repairs. The Office of Public Works has refused to refund this pitifully small amount to Mr. Saunders because there was no actual stipulation that it should do so in the original agreement. Could any but British officialdom be guilty of such contemptible meanness?

CHAPTER VI

The army—Lessons of the 1897 war—Latest reforms—Peace and war strengths—Financing the reforms—Public contributions—New organisation—New Recruiting Law—Present strength of army—Conscription—Exemptions—Recruits called up—Height Standard—Pay of privates—Rations—Uniforms—Pay of Evzonoi—Barracks—Hospitals—Schools—Colleges—Reserve officers' school—Pay of officers—Officers sent abroad—Aviation Corps.

IT was in 1833 that the army was first formed, and it was not until the year 1897 that any occasion arose for demonstrating its capabilities. Unfortunately, many glaring defects were made apparent, and so deeply was the reproach felt by the whole nation that an unanimous cry went up for drastic reformation. That cry has never ceased to make itself heard, but to-day it is less clamorous than before, and with good reason. Perfection has by no means been attained, but improvement and concentration are still being maintained by the authorities with marked effect. There are many Greeks who, on the other hand, consider that the country needs no standing army at all, relying for the country's protection against outside aggression upon the self-interests, if not altogether the goodwill, of the Great Powers. These critics deplore the expenditure which is necessary to maintain the Greek army, and would urge the retention of only as many troops as would be necessary to keep order within the borders of the country itself. These very few people may be regarded as "Little Greeks," and are about as popular

with the rest of their countrymen as are the "Little Englanders" this side.

Many Governments came and went between the disastrous war of 1897—with the lessons which were then forcibly taught as to the insufficiency of the army—and the advent to power of M. Vénizélos. Nothing definite, however, was done, and every fresh programme was abandoned almost as soon as it was projected. M. Theotokes endeavoured to effect some kind of reforms, and had his Ministry of 1904 endured a little longer there is reason to believe that he might have succeeded. As a matter of fact, a measure was actually carried, but nothing effective resulted.

With M. Vénizélos things have been different. Reforms have not only been introduced, accepted, and acted upon, but, as indicated above, the actual results achieved have passed all anticipations, and have astonished those who lived in the country when the army was little better than a mob.

The increased strength and reorganisation of the army are the outcome of certain recommendations made to the Government by General Eydoux, the head of the French Military Mission to Greece, who has already succeeded in effecting so great an improvement in the *morale* of the army. Before adoption, the provisions were fully explained to the Chamber of Deputies by the Prime Minister, and they were adopted with scarcely a dissentient.

Whereas in 1903 the peace strength of the army was 22,341 and by the new Army Law of 1904 it was increased to 28,000, the strength is now to be gradually raised until it has assumed a total of 185,000 in war.

Naturally, this organisation scheme, conducted upon so generous a scale, has not been carried out without incurring the hostile criticism of a number of individuals who not only object to the increase in the strength of the army under any circumstances, but

regard the task entered upon as likely to prove a failure. The energy of the Government and the administrative genius of General Eydoux, however, have triumphed over all these difficulties, with the result that the mobilisation has proved ready for working according to the new scheme of organisation. M. E. Vénizélos has contended that this has not only been accomplished without adding to the national expenditure, but "has actually been effected with economy." As an instance, he has cited the saving of 400,000 dr. (£16,000) upon the provisioning of army horses, which, formerly costing per diem 1.60 dr., now cost only 1.35 dr. per animal, while the quality of the forage supplied has been improved. Speaking of the condition of the army to-day, M. Vénizélos has said: "Whenever the Greek army is called upon to take the field, it will be under the brightest auspices, such as must lend additional glory to the flag."

In order to provide the necessary funds which the reorganisation has called for, the Government allocated to national defence a large proportion of the alleged surplus [1] with which it completed the year of 1911; no less a sum, indeed, than 47,500,000 dr. has been earmarked to provide the necessary *matériel*, while 16,000,000 dr. of this sum are to be expended upon new works of construction. Other funds, if necessary, will be raised by the sale of land owned by the Government, which is no doubt of considerable extent and high value. Some of these lands will be used for the erection of military buildings outside of towns, while the proceeds of their sale will be devoted to additional constructive works.

The spirit of patriotism, which has been so strong a characteristic of Greeks living abroad, has been further demonstrated by the liberal contributions which have been sent to the Government at Athens in connection

[1] Of this "surplus" I speak more fully under the heading of "Finance."

with the army reorganisation scheme. The Greek colony of Alexandria, (Egypt), for instance, placed at the disposal of General Eydoux considerable funds for an establishment for the breeding of horses for the purpose of remounts.

General Eydoux was born in Provence, France, and towards the end of the Second Empire he commenced his training as a soldier in the Special Military School in Paris, afterwards entering the French Sandhurst—Saint Cyr College for Cadets. In the meantime he had seen active service, and his younger brother, a lad of but seventeen years, was killed in battle at Champigny. Upon leaving St. Cyr, he was appointed to the 105th Regiment of Infantry; he was promoted to captain, major, and general of brigade in rapid succession. He studied meanwhile at the School of Ballooning, and subsequently took command of the famous 157th Alpine Regiment. Later he was Chief of Staff of the 3rd Army Corps and General of Brigade, with command of the 68th Brigade of Infantry. General Eydoux is a typical French courtier in demeanour, extremely simple in speech and manner, gentle in his methods, and invariably just in his treatment of the men committed to his charge. He is deeply respected and sincerely liked by all the troops and officers of the Greek army.

The principal members of the French Mission are: Commandant Bousquier, Chief of the Staff; Captain Charpry, field ordnance officer; Sub-Lieutenant Bonnier, and Surgeon-General Arnaud. Lieutenant-Colonel Lepidi and Captain Holtzapfel are in the artillery; Commandant de Tournade and Captain Herbillon at the head of the cavalry; and Commandant Crosson Duplessis and Captain Pilla in the engineers.

The Government, in the early months of 1912, passed a law relative to the reorganisation of the army, in accordance with a scheme put forward by General Eydoux, and which they had had for some time past

M. STEPHANOS DRAGOUMIS (centre); M. DEMETRIUS RHALLYS (top left); M. M. KRYIAKOULES MAVROMICHALIS (top right); M. DEMETRIUS P. GOUNARIS (bottom left); M. GÉORGEOS THEOTOKES (bottom right). (See p. 60.)

under consideration. The principal provisions of the law included :—

1. The suppression of the "dead units," such as schools of unattached officers.
2. The formation of as many complete and self-contained units as possible, for the purposes of military instruction.
3. The mustering of the units in such a manner as to have 9 companies to each regiment instead of the 8 which had hitherto existed, and 3 battalions instead of 2.
4. The organisation of the army into 4 divisions of 3 regiments each, it being considered that in this formation the troops would be found more wieldy, and consequently more mobile, in a hilly country such as Greece undoubtedly is.
5. To attach the battalions of Evzonoi to the divisions.
6. The attachment to each division of one brigade (*régiment*) of field artillery, and the consequent formation of 4 brigades of field artillery, which will be quite distinct and apart from the heavy artillery and from the mountain artillery.
7. The attachment of a first line transport or ammunition column (*train des équipages*) to artillery brigades, in order to facilitate the training and instruction of this arm and its service in the field.
8. The formation of a company of railway engineers.
9. The formation of a company of wireless telegraphists and aviators.
10. The grouping together of all the engineer units into two regiments, for the better instruction of the soldiers and staff.
11. The establishment of a staff of clerks (*compagnie des commis*) for recruiting purposes,

and another for administrative purposes, so as to draw away as few men as possible from among those undergoing military training, and to give to the two above-mentioned staffs or companies adequate military instruction.

12. To employ as great a number of officers as is available upon the most urgent duties.
13. The augmentation of the number of adjutants attached to each corps in order to have the necessary staffs for the formation of new units when the army is mobilised, and for the better instruction of future senior officers.
14. To provide horses for infantry captains as soon as the Budget resources will allow of this.
15. The number of officers to remain the same as it was at the time of the passing of the law relating to the reorganisation. Exception only is made in the case of medical officers, assistant surgeons, and assistant chemists, whose number will be diminished in such a manner as in no way to interfere with their prescriptive privileges.

The Minister of War possesses already the necessary credits for the sums to be applied to the new organisation, but his actual resources will not permit of the formation of the units prescribed by the last-named ordinance.

A new recruiting law will be submitted to the Chamber of Deputies, and will be put into operation as soon as the number of recruits is found sufficient, and they will then be distributed as follows :—

1. To further swell the personnel of the companies, squadrons, and batteries in such a manner as to make up complete units.
2. To assist the establishment of an additional battalion of Evzonoi for the garrisoning of Athens.
3. For the purpose of making up the number of

batteries in each regiment of field artillery to 8, divided into 4 sections ; while the mountain artillery will be made up to 6 batteries, divided into 3 sections, with the addition of Staff officers.

The actual military force of Greece to-day consists of the following arms of service :—

Infantry : 6 battalions of Evzonoi, each of 4 companies ; 12 line regiments of 3 battalions each, the battalions consisting of 3 companies.

Cavalry : 3 regiments (2 having their headquarters in Thessaly and forming a brigade commanded by a brigadier, or, in the alternative, by a colonel), each regiment being composed of 5 squadrons and 2 machine-gun sections. The other regiment, which is quartered in Athens, consists provisionally of 5 squadrons, the 5th squadron being kept as a cavalry school.

Artillery : 4 regiments of field artillery, 2 regiments of heavy artillery, each battery having 4 guns. (The auxiliary services are on the same footing as those of the French army.)

Engineers : 2 regiments, one of which is quartered at Larissa and consists of 2 battalions of 2 companies each, 1 of sappers and the other of a pontoon bridging train (*pontonniers*) ; the second regiment of engineers, which is located at Athens, is composed of 3 battalions, one of 3 companies of sappers and 1 of lines of communication (2 companies of telegraphists, 1 railway company, and 1 company of wireless telegraphists and aviators). It also comprises a company of firemen, 1 special Staff officer, 3 divisional controls, and 2 schools of engineering.

The headquarters of the Divisions are distributed as follows : 1st Division at Larissa, 2nd Division at Trikkala, 3rd Division at Missolonghi, and the 4th Division at Nauplia.

The various arms of the service are officered as follows: Infantry—13 colonels, 20 lieutenant-colonels, 54 majors, 238 captains, 190 lieutenants, 369 subalterns, and 96 adjutants. Cavalry—3 colonels, 5 lieutenant-colonels, 6 commandants, 21 captains, 40 lieutenants, 36 subalterns, and 11 adjutants. Artillery—5 colonels, 10 lieutenant-colonels, 24 commandants, 54 captains, 77 lieutenants, 74 subalterns, and 15 adjutants; 1 lieutenant-colonel aide-de-camp to the King, and 1 commandant aide-de-camp to the Crown Prince. Engineers—10 colonels, 10 lieutenant-colonels, 9 commandants, 25 captains, 31 lieutenants, 33 subalterns, and 14 adjutants; 1 lieutenant-colonel aide-de-camp to the King. Sappers and Miners—1 commandant, 2 captains, 2 lieutenants, 1 subaltern, and 7 adjutants; 1 commandant and 1 captain on duty at the Ministry of Marine. General Service—1 general in command of division, 10 brigadier-generals, 10 colonels, 8 lieutenant-colonels, 9 commandants, 31 captains, and 27 lieutenants. Gendarmerie—1 colonel, 5 lieutenant-colonels, 36 captains, 58 lieutenants, 63 subalterns, and 30 adjutants.

Fourteen or fifteen years ago, of the recruits entering the army not more than 55 per cent. could do more than read and write, 15 per cent. could read only, and 30 per cent. were entirely illiterate. Under the conditions of universal compulsory military service these proportions were thought to apply to the entire male population of the country. To-day, thanks to the excellent primary education which is compulsory, almost all of the troops are able to read and write with facility. Probably the proportion of educated females is less satisfactory.

In 1887 the men serving with the colours was given as 23,215, while in 1889 the number had decreased to 22,000 odd. By 1893 the number fell still further to 14,216, while to-day the total peace strength of the army is returned as 23,600.

The Army

The usual number of recruits called up may be put at 12,000 annually, and after one year's service some 2,200 pass into the regular army and the newly organised gendarmerie. The term of service with the colours is two years, in the reserve ten years, eight in the territorial army, and ten in the territorial reserve. The reserves are called out annually for training for a period which by law cannot exceed forty days.

In the month of April last (1912) the Minister of War called up 7,000 of the exempts for a course of military instruction previous to the holding of the grand manœuvres, and it is to be recorded that out of this considerable number hardly any had failed to present themselves. Up till that time not a single member had received the slightest military instruction. The generally unanimous reply to the Minister's call has proved one of the most gratifying evidences of the younger generation's deep and undiminished spirit of patriotism.

I have been assured by those who have passed anything between thirty and forty years in Greece, and who can well remember the march of events over this long period, that the army to-day bears no comparison with the undisciplined and generally tatterdemalion hordes of men who formerly composed the national troops. The reformation effected has been altogether astonishing, and the men themselves, so far from regarding their military service as a penalty and a hardship, for the most part appear to accept it as a pleasant episode in their lives.

Every male Greek, irrespective of social position, is liable to serve when he reaches the age of twenty-one —and until he is fifty-one; but it is not indispensable for the men to serve the first two years in the first line. There are, of course, exemptions occasioned by physical defects or criminal convictions. Exemptions are also made in the case of young men who are the main support of their families, such as the eldest son

of a widow, even if the woman marries again and has a family by her second husband. An only grandson of a widow who has no son or son-in-law living is likewise excused. All who thus escape, however, must pay fines varying between 50 dr. and 155 dr. (£2 and £6). The ministers of the Orthodox Church and every other recognised religion, and five Jews for service in each synagogue, as well as the students of the theological faculty of the University of Athens, are exempt upon the understanding that they enter holy orders.

The standard of height for the army is 1·54 metre (=5 ft. 1 in.), but no man, unless he is an absolute dwarf, is rejected on account of low stature. The Greeks are by no means a tall race, but neither were the ancient Romans, as is abundantly testified by the smallness of the skeletons which have been found in the catacombs at Rome, and proved by the size of the caskets which they wore in times of war; and, above all, by the height of the doorways beneath which they were accustomed to pass. Nevertheless they were doughty warriors.

The Greeks not alone come from all parts of the kingdom to do their service but return from all corners of the world, there being neither shirking attempted nor any complaints uttered. I have met many likely young fellows, the majority of whom have left flourishing businesses, just returned from the United States, flush with money, but both ready and anxious to perform their military service, and thereafter to depart once more for the scene of their prosperity; but these young Greeks never call the United States their "home," looking upon America generally as the Israelites regarded the land of Egypt, the scene of their bondage. The difference in the life which they lead there is not so marked as one might suppose, since the average Greek immigrant to North America spends absolutely nothing upon himself beyond what is necessary to keep body

and soul together, preferring to save every cent of what he makes to send home to his people or to place in safe custody until he has amassed sufficient to enable him to return to his own country and to remain there in comfort for the rest of his life.

The pay of a Greek soldier is small when estimated from a British point of view, but by no means so from a continental standard. Upon joining his regiment he receives 1 dr. 50 lepta, with which he must supply himself in brushes, soap, and, if he is sufficiently careful—a tooth and a nail brush. Few of these luxuries, however, find their way into the barrack-rooms. Usually speaking such articles, now that the price of living is so much higher than it was, cost almost double the amount mentioned, and as a consequence the new arrival starts his career in debt. His daily pay is nominally 46 lepta, but out of this by no means generous sum two-thirds, namely, 30 lepta, are deducted for food and one lepton for the military chest, so that his net daily pay comes to 15 lepta, or, say, 1¼d. per diem.

The Government's contribution to "Tommy's" keep is 22 lepta for his bread, 10 lepta for his other food, and 25 lepta for his washing. The quality of the food is very fair, and in all respects equal to that supplied to the French and German soldier, and much better than that provided for the Italian or Turkish troops. Bread of a coarse but wholesome character, meat in sufficiently generous portions, vegetables when obtainable, coffee, and as much cheese as required, form the ordinary diet served out; and the men seem to be perfectly satisfied with both the quantity and the quality.

The uniforms supplied by the Government are of a thick and well-wearing dark-coloured khaki, usually made abroad, and one uniform only is allowed a year. This is rather hard on the men, because they are expected to do most of their rough work and drill in uniform, and to still retain a smart appearance.

Naturally they fail to do so; but few of the troops that I have seen, except those few fortunate individuals who have been enabled to purchase new uniforms from their own private sources, have appeared in regimentals either neat or particularly clean after a few months' wear have been experienced.

The best-paid Greek soldiers are the Evzonoi, their pay amounting to 12 lepta a day extra (that is to say, to 27 lepta net). They form an infantry regiment of very picturesque appearance, and are mainly composed of riflemen of great skill with their weapons, and of exemplary character. They are the only soldiers who wear the *fustanella*, or stiff-pleated short petticoat made of white linen, which is not unlike the Scotch regimental kilt, and which, with the short, stylish, blue jacket, full white linen sleeves, heavily braided waistcoat, white leggings, and a decidedly jaunty red fisherman's cap, adorned with a long silken tassel, imparts a picturesque appearance which is quite fascinating. The extraordinary heelless shoes of red leather, their turned-up toes adorned with two enormous black balls of tufted blue worsted, complete a costume which is probably not to be equalled for daring, *bizarre* effect by that of any natives in the world. The Evzonoi always serve as the King's bodyguard, and are continually on duty at the palace of both his Majesty and the royal princes.

The reputation of the regiment for valour in the field stands high, and during the war of 1897 it won great distinction both for orderliness and conspicuous gallantry.

Of late years much attention has been paid to improving the conditions of the troops in barracks, the latter being constructed upon more scientific principles, especial regard being paid to sanitation. Unfortunately, as yet, perfection has not been attained; but improvements are being made day by day. The largest barracks in Athens are those at Goudi and in the

TYPES OF THE GREEK ARMY : THE EVZONOI, FROM AMONG WHOM ARE DRAWN THE KING'S BODYGUARD.
The "fustanellas" (short skirts) sometimes measure 21 yards round the bottom. The third figure shows the Greek National costume as worn upon holidays.
(See p. 98.)

Kephissia Road, but there are also considerable military establishments at Livadia, Nauplia, Larissa, Missolonghi, &c., the latter being among the most important of the military stations in the kingdom.

Of the principal military hospitals, of which there are several, two are situated at Athens and the others at Missolonghi and Corfu. The first mentioned have of late been much extended and generally improved; the nursing staff, in which the Crown Princess Sophia (wife of the Heir Apparent) is much interested, has four English nurses attached, and their work is much appreciated by the patients. One Englishwoman is also in charge of the large hospital at Cephalonia, of which a description will be found under the chapter devoted to the Ionian Islands. It is remarkable that until the last of the wars in which Greeks have been concerned, no female nurses were to be found in the native hospitals.

Of military schools and colleges there are several. The most important is that known as the Evelpides, in Athens, which in a few years has added somewhat to its teaching staff and its number of cadets. The former consist of about thirteen or fourteen, and the pupils to about fifty or sixty. This academy accepts youths who have passed through the gymnasia and receive a certificate for good conduct and application, and who pass a by no means difficult preliminary examination. The course then lasts for a period of five years, and embraces a large range of practical and professional subjects, as well as the acquisition of at least two foreign languages. Some 70 or 80 per cent. of these young fellows speak either French or English, and many of them speak and write both languages with great facility. I have been often surprised at the readiness with which I have been addressed in my own language, not only by cadets and officers but by some of the rank and file of the Greek army; my astonishment in no way lessened when I was informed that none

of these men had been out of the country, but had learned English in the Government schools.

The Board of Health consists of ten members, composed of three Professors of the University of Athens, one of whom is the president, two military surgeons, one military pharmacist, two ordinary practitioners, and two veterinary surgeons.

The Evelpides College corresponds to the Military Academy of the Ordnance College at Woolwich; but there exists no establishment which can be compared with our Staff College at Camberley nor with our School of Gunnery at Shoeburyness. There is, however, this Subalterns' School for infantry and cavalry, where a three-year course of instruction is gone through. Upon passing through the final examination, cadets can enter any branch of the army with the rank of sub-lieutenant.

For non-commissioned officers there is thus a college, conducted upon much about the same lines as our Duke of York's Royal Military School, near Dover. A preliminary examination must be passed, the subjects for future study being of a military character, and at the termination of a three-year course the successful students are given the rank of sub-lieutenant in either the cavalry or the infantry. To secure a full commission in the artillery or the engineers, a course of five years' study is necessary. The Government has also adopted the plan of sending likely officers abroad in order to study, some of these latter having entered Woolwich and other of our important military educational establishments. Several are now in France learning aviation at the expense of the State.

A school for the officers of the reserve forces is established at Corfu, this having been inaugurated during the régime of the late M. Trikoupes. Those who have already taken University degrees are eligible, and the course gone through is one year's study of military subjects. The examination imposed is not

a particularly severe one, and successful passing brings with it the rank of sub-lieutenant in either the infantry or the artillery. After one year's service in these arms, the officers pass out into the reserve or the active army.

The once brilliant uniforms worn by Greek officers upon all and every occasion are now seen only upon gala days, or when public parades are held. Most officers now wear the khaki, the various grades and different regiments being indicated by distinctive coloured neckbands and cuffs, or the braiding upon the jackets and riding breeches. Nearly all of the officers met with, whether infantry or cavalry, wear high jack-boots, usually of poor make and shapeless. Nevertheless they are expensive articles, and must speedily wear out as a result of the constant use to which they are put and the amount of walking which is done in them.

The pay of Greek army officers is as follows: General of Brigade, 560 dr. monthly; colonel, 560 dr. monthly; lieutenant-colonel, 480 dr. monthly; major, 440 dr. monthly; captain, 300 dr. monthly; lieutenant, 180 dr. monthly; sub-lieutenant, 160 dr. monthly.

Many foreigners who come to Greece, especially to Athens, have remarked upon the extraordinary number of uniformed individuals met with in the business streets and the public resorts. The reason is that not only do all officers upon active service appear regularly in their uniforms, but the officers of the reserve also cling affectionately to their service apparel, preferring it to mufti. Then, again, every cadet, every schoolboy, and every Government official, no matter how humble his position, parades a uniform and a military cap of some kind. The actual number of officers to men is, I believe, one to thirteen; but first impressions are apt to lead to the conviction that the proportion is more like thirteen to one.

Anyhow, Greek military men love their uniform, and

like to be seen wearing it; they are not afflicted with that incomprehensible and regrettable dislike shown to the King's dress which distinguishes the average English officer, both at home and in our Indian possessions. I have never been able to understand why British military men should appear so anxious to shake off the trappings of their professions as soon as they can, or should feel ashamed to be seen wearing them in the public streets or at places of entertainment. This is a distinctively British failing, and is as snobbish as it is unpatriotic.

The Government, under the advice of the head of the French Military Mission (General Eydoux), last year dispatched a number of young officers to France in order to learn aviation. At first only a few pupils were sent there, but of late months, owing to a further exchange of ideas between the Minister of War (at present M. Vénizélos) and General Eydoux, they have been joined by several brother-officers, sergeants and corporals, who are acting as mechanics for the flotilla of aeroplanes which has been formed. The first machines were delivered at Athens quite recently, and the others are to follow with as little delay as possible.

An innovation, initiated by Colonel de la Tournarde, of the French Military Mission, was introduced to the Athenians last March, in the form of a grand military tournament held upon the fine and open plain of Goudi, and which afforded the public an excellent opportunity of seeing what improvements had been effected in the different cavalry regiments since the French Mission took them in hand.

Some patriotic citizens have already started a subscription list with the idea of purchasing one or more military aeroplanes for the use of the Army. The brothers Siphnéos, who are merchants in the town of Tanagra, in conjunction with a third individual who desires his name kept secret, have contributed 20,000 drachmæ as a nucleus, and have forwarded this

to the Government. It is possible that the latter may find the whole of the remaining sum necessary to equip a complete aeroplane detachment; otherwise the public may be depended upon to contribute the amount, whatever it may be, and offers of very considerable sums have already been received by the authorities. Greece is determined to be no way behind France, Italy, and Germany in this matter.

CHAPTER VII

The navy—History since 1821—Turkish war—Admiral Nicodémus—The Arsenal—Change of site—The *George Averoff*—New construction—Competition among foreign shipbuilders—Strength of present navy—Latest additions—The police—Improving the gendarmerie—Italian Mission.

GREECE has possessed a naval force of some sort since the year 1821, when the number of merchant vessels of between 60 and 100 tons for the whole country amounted to 290. These vessels were distributed among six different ports—such, for instance, as that of Hydra, which contributed 115, those of Spetzai and Galaxidi, which provided 60 ships each, Néa Psara 40 ships, and Trikeri 30 ships. During the War of Independence these vessels were used for the purpose of attacking Turkey, and rendered a brilliant account of themselves, the sailors fighting like demons, rushing upon the enemy and fixing fire-ships to his side by means of grappling irons; during the next forty years, however, little or no naval progress was made, nor yet in the construction of modern ships of any kind; but in 1866 there was formed a Society for the Promotion of a National Fleet, which was speedily receiving contributions from Greeks all over the world. The committee which was responsible for the disposition of the funds comprised some of the most eminent names, among which were to be found those of several English—such, for instance, as that of Sir Richard Church, the famous Philhellene, Mr. Clement Harris, Mr. Frank Noel, and others.

The Navy

Among the numerous Greeks who contributed generously were Admiral Nicodémus, who bequeathed the whole of his funded property and that invested in lands to the Society. As a result, the National Treasury was enabled to purchase the *Admiral Miaoulis*.

Later on, in December, 1900, a separate department for the national fleet was founded at the Ministry of Marine, and the revenue was assisted by receipts from light and harbour dues in all Greek ports, while, as mentioned elsewhere, a lottery was instituted for the express purpose of collecting funds for the navy. The light and harbour dues referred to figure upon both sides of the account of the general Budget, and are estimated to have reached £46,800 in 1910, £56,000 in 1911, and £60,000 for 1912, while the amount the fund received from participation in the profits of the State lottery is estimated as £24,000 in 1910, £22,700 in 1911, and £20,000 in 1912.

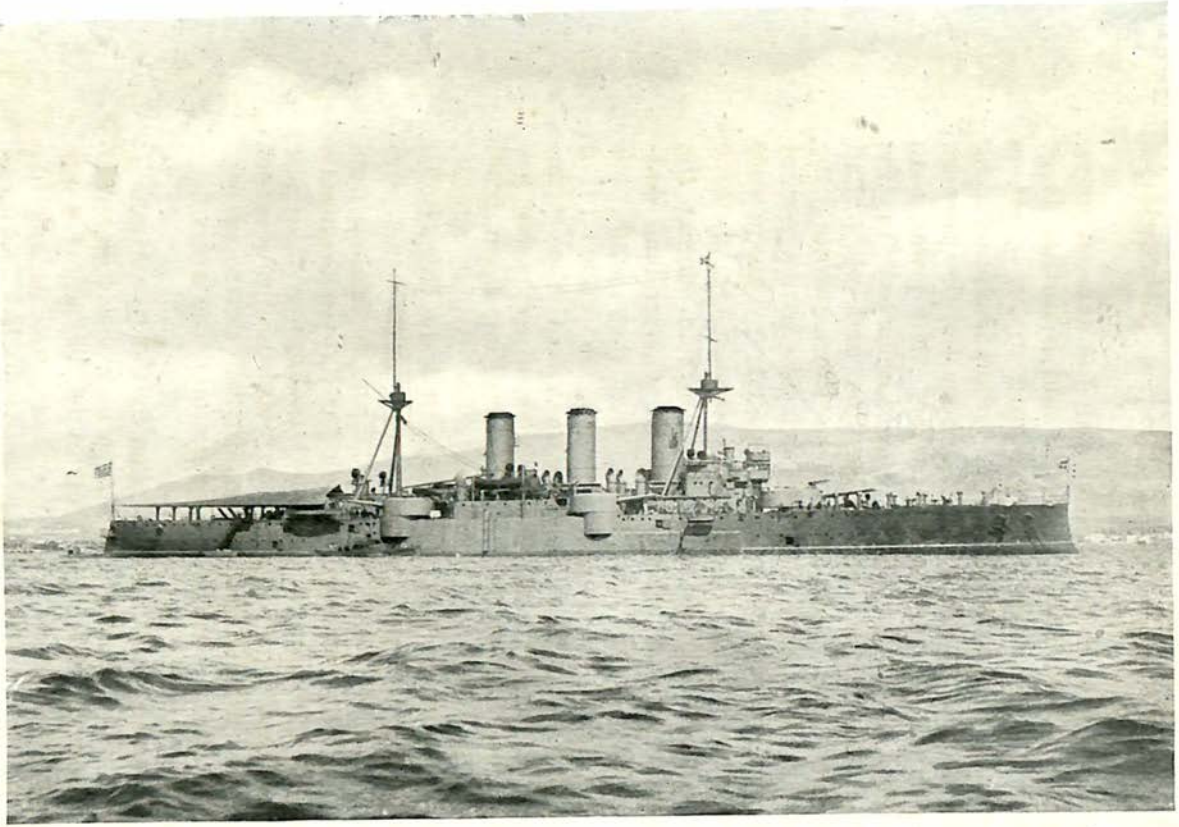
It has been said with truth that all Greeks are born mariners, and it is equally true that the great majority of the men serving to-day in the navy have proved themselves to be excellent fighting material. The sailors are recruited from the marine populations of the islands, especially round about the Gulf of Corinth and the islands of Hydra, Néa Psara, &c. All recruits for the navy are exempt from service in the army, and, after taking the oath at the Arsenal at Salamis, they are sent for three months' training to the naval school at Poros, where, as a rule, between five hundred and six hundred are simultaneously undergoing instruction. At the end of their three months' training, the recruits enter the Arsenal at Salamis, being allotted to a division of the fleet which is about to undertake manœuvres, and after a further thorough course of instruction here they join their respective ships. One of the training ships is situated at the Piræus, this being an old but still useful boat called the *Hellas*, from which

both boilers and engines have been removed. A thoroughly practical training is afforded, not only in seamanship, gunnery, &c., but in the ordinary course of study and in foreign languages, if desired.

The Arsenal, which originally was at Poros, but is now, as already indicated, at the fine Bay of Salamis, is an extensive but plain building, admirably designed for its purposes. It was removed here, not in consequence of the petition of the inhabitants of Poros, who feared that their island would suffer from bombardment in the event of war, as has been alleged by some writers, but because Salamis Bay was considered a more strategic site. The Arsenal is controlled by a director, a sub-director, an aide-de-camp, a secretary, and a commissary; while other administrative departments are those concerned with material, port matters, artillery equipment, the hospital, &c.

In the month of March, 1910, the Greek navy received a handsome addition in the form of a new battleship named the *George Averoff*, after the munificent and ardent patriot who bequeathed a large sum of money for the purpose of its construction. The legacy was left for some years at compound interest, but although when finally utilised it reached the sum of 3,516,258 dr. (£140,000), it was found insufficient for the purpose, and a further extraordinary grant of 17,000,000 dr. (£680,000) was necessary in order to complete the purchase price of the cruiser, which was built by Messrs. Orlando, of Leghorn, Italy.

This vessel, which is a sister ship to the Italian cruiser *Pisa*, is 141 metres in length, 21·00 metres in beam, and 12·25 metres in depth. The armament consists of 4 22·4-cm. guns, placed in armoured turrets, 8 19-cm. guns, 4 on each side, also in armoured turrets, 16 guns of 7·6 cm. calibre, of which 14 are placed on deck, and 2 above the armoured turrets which contain the big guns. The whole of the artillery equipment is of the latest pattern, and was manufactured by Messrs.



CRUISER "GEORGIOS AVEROFF," BUILT BY ORLANDO, OF LEGHORN, ITALY.

A sister ship to the Italian cruiser "Pisa," length 141 metres, beam 21·00 metres, depth 12·25 metres. Armaments by Armstrong, Whitworth & Co., Limited, Newcastle-on-Tyne.

(See p. 106.)

Armstrong, Whitworth & Co., Ltd., at Newcastle-on-Tyne.

Early in 1912, in connection with the avowed intention of the Greek Government to add a further large war vessel and some torpedo craft to the fleet, a number of representatives of the principal shipbuilding yards of the world gathered at Athens for the purpose of obtaining, if possible, the order. No fewer than twenty-three representatives were collected in the capital at the same time. Designs and plans had been lodged previously, and these were awaiting the decision of the Commission, which was composed of six Greek and five English experts. There were altogether ten British, four French, three German, three American, two Italian, and one Austrian among the firms competing, but in the end the Government suddenly arrived at the conclusion that they would not select any of the plans put forward, and called for a completely new design. Then many of the representatives lost heart, and left Athens, after having expended many hundreds of pounds sterling upon hotel accommodation, entertaining, &c. The British agents, however, "hung on," as is characteristic of John Bull; and although the principals of the large firms who had come out to Greece to make the necessary preliminary inquiries returned home after the Government's decision to call for new plans was known, they left capable deputies upon the spot to watch the movements of their rivals and to report any further developments. The order, finally, went to Germany, and the armament order to the United States.

One of the first tasks undertaken by the new Minister of Marine was to compile and present to his colleagues in the Government a long and analytical report upon the navy and the new naval construction. Among his recommendations, all of which were adopted and have now been put into execution, were to place orders with the Vulcan Works (German) for two destroyers, with

STATEMENT OF THE STRENGTH OF THE GREEK FLEET IN DETAIL (1912).

	When built.	Tonnage.	Armament.	Complement.
Armoured Battleships—				
AVEROFF	1910	10,118	4 9·2-inch 8 7·5-inch 3 torpedo tubes	Officers ... ... 30 Petty officers ... 286 Men 355
PSARA	1890	5,000	3 10·8-inch 5 6-inch 1 4-inch 3 tubes	Officers ... ... 20 Petty officers ... 92 Men 245
HYDRA	1889			
SPETSAI	1889			
Destroyers—				
THYELLA	1906	400	2 12-pounders 4 6-pounders 2 tubes	Officers ... ... 5 Petty officers ... 22 Men 37
SFENDONI				
LONCHI				
NAUKRATOUSSA				
ASPIS	1906	350	2 12-pounders 4 6-pounders 2 tubes	Officers ... ... 5 Petty officers ... 22 Men 37
NIKI				
DOXA				
VELOS				
5 *Torpedo-boats*	1885	85	4 1-pounders 2 tubes	Officers ... ... 1 Petty officers ... 12 Men 12
Corvettes—				
ACHELOOS	1884	410	2 3·7-inch	Officers ... ... 8 Petty officers ... 20 Men 82
ALPHEIOS				
EVROTAS				
PENEIOS				

STATEMENT OF THE STRENGTH OF THE GREEK FLEET IN DETAIL (1912)—*continued.*

	When built.	Tonnage.	Armament.	Complement.
SPHAKTERIA	Bought in 1887	1,000	dispatch vessel	Officers ... ... 4 Petty officers ... 31 Men 70
CRETE	Captured 1897	1,000	2 small guns	Officers ... ... 6 Petty officers ... 29 Men 54
KANARIS	1877	1,100	2 4-inch 4 tubes	Officers ... ... 6 Petty officers ... — Men ... ... —
AKTION ... ... AMBRAKIA	1881	484	1 6-inch 3 12-pounders	Officers ... ... 5 Petty officers and men ... (about) 50
SALAMINA ... ... SYROS	1859–60	380	1 3·4 inch	
MONEMVASIA ... ... AIGIALLA ... ... NAUPLIA ... ... KISSA ... ... KIKLE ... ... ÆDON	1881	90	—	Officers ... ... — Petty officers ... 3 Men 12
MIAOULIS	1878	2,000	depot ship	
3 *small Gunboats*...	1877	50	1 4-inch	

The proposed new naval construction comprises: 2 submarines, one of which is now undergoing her trials; 1 battleship cruiser, of about 13,000 tons; 2 destroyers; and 6 torpedo boats.

The above will not be ready to enter the naval service until the end of 1913 or early in 1914.

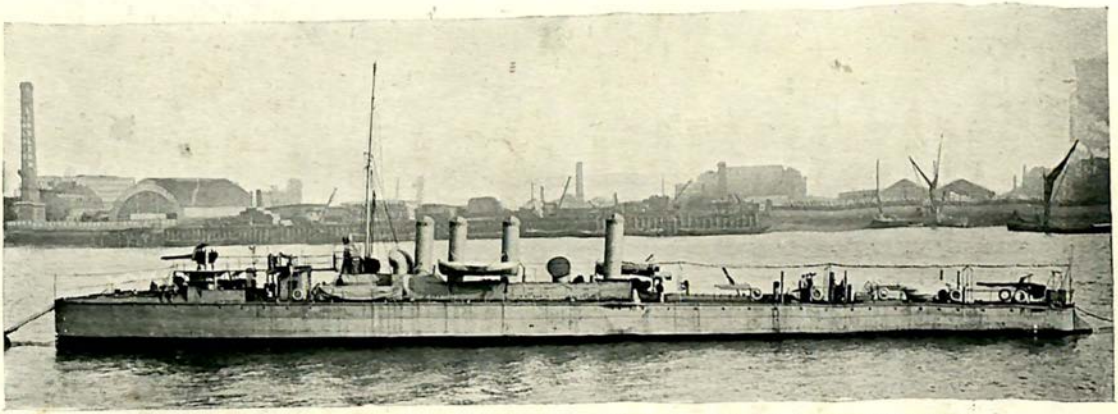
a displacement of 570 tons at trial and 700 tons full charge ; speed, 31½ knots ; each destroyer to cost not more than 1,985,000 francs and to be delivered to the Government the first within three and the second within four months. The order was also recommended, and has since been given, for six torpedo-boats, with a displacement of 125 tons, armed with two mitrailleuses of 57 millimetres and other armaments, the speed to be 14 knots per hour ; the cost of these not to exceed 572,816 francs each.

M. Stratos, the Minister of Marine, has explained his reasons for placing these orders with the German firm mentioned, and which include that of prompt delivery of the craft ; two of the torpedo-boats which had been constructed for the German Government have been courteously offered to the Greek Government, which has more immediate need of them—not by any means, however, a sinister one.

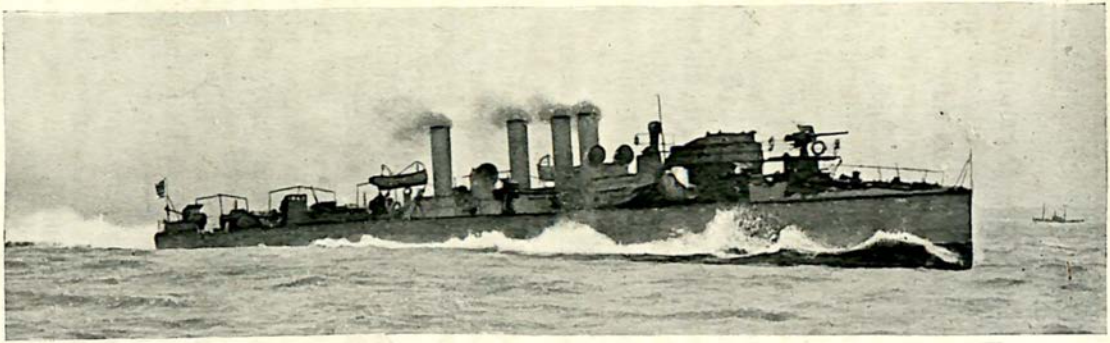
The Minister of Marine has also ordered from the shipyards at the Piræus two additional torpedo-boats, and in order to assist the Greek Government in this undertaking the German firm of constructors (the Vulcan Works) have taken into their yards for four months' training and experience several Hellenic foremen who have been selected by the Government.

In the spring of this year (1912) some important and thoroughly successful naval evolutions took place, commencing in May and continuing until July. The headquarters of the navy during these manœuvres was Volo, and the vessels participating included the *Averoff*, the *Psara*, and the *Spetzai*, armoured battleships ; the *Lonchi*, the *Spherdoni*, the *Doxa*, the *Aspis*, the *Thyella*, and the *Naucratoussa*, torpedo-destroyers ; a business-like little fleet which will, doubtless, form the nucleus of a much more important one at no distant date.

The latest addition to the Greek navy is the submergible *Xiphias* (Swordfish), built at the dockyards of Chalons, and successfully launched at the end of



TORPEDO-BOAT DESTROYER "THYELLA," BUILT BY YARROW AND CO., LIMITED, GLASGOW.
During continuous run of three hours, carrying load of 60 tons, attained a speed of 31·79 knots; mean air pressure of 2·16 inches.



TORPEDO-BOAT DESTROYER "NAUKRATOUSSA," BUILT BY YARROW AND CO., LIMITED.
During similar run attained a speed of 32·012 knots, with a mean pressure of 1·5.

The Police

May (1912) in the presence of the Greek Minister at Paris, M. Romanos.

There are few better policed cities than Athens to-day, and especially so since the advent of the Italian Mission, who are effecting for the Greek gendarmerie the same improvements in *morale* and utility that the British Mission has performed for the Greek navy and the French Military Mission for the Greek army. The average policeman whom one meets in the capital and in the provincial towns is a small man physically, but usually he is very wiry and always ready at an emergency. He is, moreover, both courteous and friendly in his demeanour towards foreigners, and will frequently leave his beat to put a stranger upon the right road or to render him any other little necessary courteous attention. Captain Mayagriotaki has command of the gendarmerie in Athens.

There are four Italian officers comprising the Mission, two of whom, M. Lauro and M. Rondei, having served in the Cretan gendarmerie, speak Greek very well. The officer in command is Colonel Garibiota.

Up till lately the Police Corps, which is under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of the Interior, has been divided into a Central Prefecture and several Prefectures at Athens and the Department of Attica. The latter are located also in all principal towns, and are, again, divided into district stations, each with its captain, lieutenant, and complement of men. Each department has thus a prefecture and sub-prefecture, with stations and such number of men as the particular district may call for. There is no difficulty, as a rule, in finding sufficient gendarmes to complete the requirements of this arm of the public service, although the pay is small and the chances of promotion are not particularly bright.

CHAPTER VIII

Finance—History of Greek loans from 1824 to 1911—Early default—Funding Loan—Financial chaos following war of 1897—Indemnity to Turkey—Formation of International Financial Commission—Duties of delegates—Loans statistical table—Amount of public debt—Comparative *per capita* statement—Optimism of Finance Minister—Position of foreign bondholders—Security upon monopolies—Proposed abolition of I. F. C.—Government suggestions—Opposition by the Commission.

IT was in the years 1824 and 1825, during the War of Independence, that Greece first became a borrower upon the foreign money market. At that time the newly fledged State found the terms demanded extremely arduous, as may be believed when it was only enabled to borrow the sum of £2,800,000 at the almost unheard-of issue price of 50 per cent. and 56½ per cent. It is scarcely surprising to hear that the interest was paid for but two years, and that thereafter it remained in default until the conversion of the loan in 1879.

In spite of its interest being in arrear, the young State was enabled to again borrow, in 1833, the sum of 60,000,000 frs. at 5 per cent., and—after an arrangement made with the guaranteeing Powers in 1864—in 1879 the further sum of £1,200,000 at 5 per cent., and also 60,000,000 frs. at 6 per cent.; in 1881, £4,800,000, at 5 per cent., issued at 74 per cent.; in 1884, £6,800,000, at 5 per cent., issued at 68½ per cent.; in 1887, £5,400,000, at 4 per cent., issued at 78½ per cent.; in 1889, £6,200,000, at 4 per cent., issued in two portions at 72 per cent. and 77½ per

cent.; and in 1890, £3,595,000, at 5 per cent., issued in two portions at 93 and 86 per cent. In the year 1879 the Greek loans were reorganised and converted, entirely through the efforts and with the assistance of M. J. Gennadius, the Greek Minister, who settled the whole complicated question upon terms more favourable to the Greeks than was believed to have been possible, and after even M. Tricoupes himself had failed to get the bondholders to agree. It was M. Gennadius who secured public recognition for Greek securities in Europe after being under the ban of the London Stock Exchange for fifty years.

In 1893 actual further extensive borrowing came to an end temporarily, and the Funding 5 per cent. Loan was arranged. During this and the following year negotiations were going on between the Greek Government and its foreign creditors for a settlement, and these negotiations were carried on right through the years of 1895 and 1896. Then came the disastrous war with Turkey, as a result of which the finances of Greece were thrown back into a chaotic condition. It was then that the six Great Powers, with the enforced assent of Greece, took over the finances of the kingdom and placed them under the control of an International Financial Commission. The Board of this Commission is composed of seven members, of whom the following are the personnel:—

For Germany, the Minister Plenipotentiary, Herr R. Klehmet; for Austria-Hungary, the Consul-General, the Chevalier W. Princig de Herwalt; for France, the Minister Plenipotentiary, M. Louis Paternotre; for Great Britain, the Councillor of the British Legation, Mr. Henry H. D. Beaumont; for Italy, the Consul-General, Count J. Naselli; for Russia, the Consul-General, M. M. Akimovitch.

The delegates forming the Commission are appointed directly by the six Great Powers, and they represent their respective countries and not the bondholders.

The revenues which are assigned for the service of the external debt, and which are controlled by the International Financial Commission, are those derived from the monopolies upon salt, petroleum, matches, playing-cards, cigarette-paper, Naxos emery, the stamp and tobacco dues, and the Piræus Customs duties. The normal yield of the monopolies and the stamp and tobacco dues is between 28,000,000 and 29,000,000 dr., and any excess over this amount is treated as a *plus value*, 60 per cent. of which is devoted in equal proportions to the increase of interest and sinking fund, and applied to the three groups of loans in rotation by increments to 2 per cent. of the original interest, any balance being carried forward to the next account. The balance of the funds taken from the Monopoly Company has to be returned in five annual instalments of 500,000 dr. each and applied to increasing the interest on this loan.

For the carrying out of the Commission's service the loans are divided in three groups, according to their unredeemed capital, on the 20th-21st of April, 1898, viz. :—

			Frs.	Frs.
1st Group :—				
4 per cent.	1887.	Monopolies ...	133,045,000	
5 „	1893.	Funding Loan ...	9,739,000	
				142,784,000
2nd Group :—				
5 per cent.	1881	... ...	103,500,000	
5 „	1884	... ...	90,531,000	
5 „	1890	Piræus-Larissa ...	59,901,500	
				253,932,500
3rd Group :—				
4 per cent.	1889.	Rent		155,000,000
		Total in frs.		551,716,500

The Commission started its work on the 28th of April (10th of May), 1898. Under the guarantee of England, France, and Russia, a loan of 150,000,000

frs. at 2½ per cent. was negotiated, and the Commission paid over to the Ottoman Government 92,000,000 frs. indemnity, arranged for in the Treaty of Peace between Turkey and Greece. The Turks then evacuated Thessaly. The balance of the loan was allocated to satisfying the floating debt, Budget deficit, and other obligations of the State. The table on p. 116 shows the amount of the Grecian Public Debt up to the end of 1910.

In 1911 a further loan of 110,000,000 frs. was emitted at 4 per cent., but without bearing the guarantee of the International Financial Commission. The proceeds were allocated to repaying the loan (advance) of 1910, amounting to 40,000,000 frs., at 5 per cent., as well as the repayment of 10,000,000 dr. obtained from the National Bank of Greece. Thus the capital of the Public Debt was further increased by 60,000,000 dr.

It may be observed that the interest upon the old gold loans is not fixed, but increases in proportion to the sums available each year, although it can never be raised beyond the figure originally given. When all the loans will have recovered their original interest the surplus will be restored to the Government. It is also to be observed that their redemption is not fixed either, but increases in proportion to the sums available each year.

Greece owes to-day something like 1,052,000,000 dr. (say, £42,000,000), and the home and foreign debt charges amount to about £1,342,000, or, say, 24 per cent. of the total expenditure—namely, £947,500 for interest, £379,390 for redemption, and £15,850 for expenses of management. This is not all either, for there must be added charges accruing upon three extra budgetary loans amounting to £83,500; for interest, £69,000; and for redemption, £14,500; the total, therefore, comes to £1,426,000 to be found annually, or about 10s. 7d. per head of the population. And yet,

Loans.	Nominal Capital.	
	Original.	Not redeemed by Dec. 31, 1910.
Former debt in gold :—	dr.	dr.
1881 5 per cent. loan	120,000,000	94,073,000
1884 5 „ „	170,000,000	82,145,500
1887 4 „ „	135,000,000	123,270,000
1889 4 „ „	155,000,000	140,562,000
1890 5 „ „	60,000,000	54,262,000
1893 5 „ „	9,500,000	8,823,500
	649,500,000	503,136,000
Debt submitted to the public debt service :—		
1885 patriotic loan, without interest dr.	2,723,860	1,864,870
1898 2½ per cent. gold ... frs.	150,592,500	133,545,000
1898 5 „ „ ... dr.	76,350,000	75,070,000
1900 5 „ „ ... „	11,750,000	11,515,000
1902 4 „ „ ... frs.	56,250,000	55,849,500
1910 5 „ „ ... „	40,000,000	40,000,000
	337,666,360	317,844,370
Debt non-submitted to the public debt service :—		
1906 1 per cent. loan ... dr.	18,000,000	16,720,000
1907 5 „ „ gold ... frs.	20,000,000	20,000,000
1907 5 „ „ „ ... „	10,000,000	9,614,000
1909 5 „ „ „ ... dr.	5,000,000	4,959,000
	53,000,000	51,293,100
1833 gold loan ; banknotes (arbitrary price) and other various denominations	60,000,000	56,102,720
		61,775,975
Treasury bonds...		7,500,000
	Total dr.	1,007,652,165

formidable as the sum seems, it is very considerably less than the public debts of some other countries, for we find that in France the rate per head is £1 3s.; in Portugal, £1 2s. 6d.; in Argentina, £1 2s. 5d.; in Austria, 17s. 9d.; in Belgium, 13s. 3d.; in Bulgaria, 12s. 11d.; in Hungary, 12s. 9d.; and in Roumania, 11s. 4d.

It is interesting to note the principal countries interested in Greek finance and the change which has taken place within the past thirteen years, Greece being a very considerable holder of her own securities :—

Years.	Germany.	France.	Great Britain.	Greece.	Various Countries.	Total.
						Dr.
1899	2,918,000	2,924,000	6,388,000	460,000	1,000	12,690,000
1900	2,607,000	3,096,000	6,716,000	541,000	—	12,960,000
1901	2,509,000	3,131,000	6,088,000	524,000	—	12,252,000
1902	2,333,000	3,416,000	6,676,000	548,000	—	12,973,000
1903	1,922,000	3,772,000	7,031,000	643,000	—	13,350,000
1904	1,711,000	4,253,000	7,114,000	776,000	—	13,854,000
1905	1,688,000	4,469,000	7,844,000	863,000	10,000	14,974,000
1906	1,691,000	4,666,000	8,226,000	1,087,000	2,000	15,672,000
1907	1,651,000	4,711,000	8,712,000	1,197,000	2,000	16,273,000
1908	1,520,000	4,743,000	8,419,000	1,312,000	3,000	15,997,000
1909	1,475,000	4,771,000	8,273,000	1,422,000	3,000	15,944,000
1910	1,449,000	4,785,000	8,263,000	1,710,000	3,000	16,210,000
1911	1,370,000	4,752,000	8,140,000	2,092,000	3,000	16,258,000

The strong financial position which was disclosed last year (1911) shortly after M. Vénizélos had come into power, and as set forth by M. Coromilas, the Minister of Finance, not unnaturally gave rise to some doubt as to whether the figures adduced and the conclusions arrived at were reliable. In a word, it was a question as to whether optimism did not play a too important part in the financial statement. Close investigation proves, however, that the soundness of the financial position of the State has not been overrated. Indeed, it is little less than astonishing when

we remember that a few short years ago Greece was actually upon the verge of national bankruptcy, while to-day there is a substantial surplus in the Treasury, and the revenues are considerably in excess of expenditure. The change which has come about is quite capable of explanation. Commerce and industry have been unprecedently favourable, large sums of money have flowed, and are continually flowing, into Greece from successful Greeks living abroad, while the exchange has for some time been at par. Thus for the first time in her experience Greece finds herself in the possession of abundant capital, and for the first time since its foundation the National Bank of Greece is creditor to a considerable amount of foreign banking institutions.

Some critics look with apprehension at the large amount of Greek foreign indebtedness—£34,468,660—and they inquire, What other country with a similarly small population, which may be put at 2,700,000, possesses such a large foreign debt? They ask us to remember that about one-third of the country's entire revenue is now being devoted to the service of this debt. Certain it is that this year, 1912, no less a sum than one of 36,788,000 frs. will be employed for the service of the Public Debt, against a revenue amounting to 143,618,000 frs.

The answer to this criticism is that the revenues from various additional sources are likely to be considerably expanded, whereas the expenditure is proportionately diminishing; there can be no question either that the country, as a whole, is merely upon the verge of its commercial and agricultural development, and that in practically every branch of economic and industrial enterprise expansion is either occurring or is possible.

A question which already has formed, and one which is likely to form hereafter, the basis of considerable discussion is that of the conversion of the present outstanding loans; and it may be interesting

MR. J. J. STAVRIDI, HELLENIC CONSUL-GENERAL IN LONDON (centre); PROFESSOR ANDRÉ ANDRÉADÈS, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ATHENS (top left); M. JEAN A. VALAORITIS, GOVERNOR OF THE NATIONAL BANK (top right); PROFESSOR LAMBROS, RECTOR OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ATHENS; ADMIRAL LIONEL G. TUFNELL, C.M.G., HEAD OF THE BRITISH NAVAL MISSION. (See pp. 160, 137, 82, 75.)

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[To face p. 119.

to set forth the suggested manner in which this will be dealt with. The Government consider that the conversion would prove very advantageous both to the State and to its creditors. There can be little doubt that the position of Greece in this matter is somewhat misunderstood by the foreign bondholders, since they assume that the increase in the receipts of the International Financial Commission must not only continue, but must be materially augmented and thus add to the amount of annual interest paid upon their bonds. The objections to conversion are mainly raised by individuals who consider that things will thus go on improving indefinitely; but this is a mistake. Already the maximum receipts have been reached upon several of the special articles, such as stamps and stamp-paper, salt, petroleum, and matches, which form the basis of the bondholders' security, and these maxima cannot be exceeded.

I have already enumerated the monopolies the receipts from which go towards paying the interest upon the country's foreign loans, but in regard to six of these—namely, those which were contracted between 1881 and 1893—it may be pointed out that they do not assume the form of a real loan. Indeed, they are more like the shares of a limited liability company, which are dependent for the amount of dividend distributed upon the actual trading profits of the year, instead of a fixed annual sum. As at present constituted, the interest upon these loans alters year by year instead of being, as it should, immutable. This seems somewhat of an anomaly, and the mutual interests of Greece and her creditors demand an alteration. Very often a Greek loan which has had a smaller distribution than in the previous year is, nevertheless, quoted higher than another loan which may have enjoyed a better share of the receipts. In regard to those loans which participate in these receipts, distribution varies according to an existing scale; sometimes this is very high—

out of all proportion, perhaps, to the other loans; all cannot participate every year, and yet all are equal in regard to guarantee and rights.

The position is also unsatisfactory because no one knows, not even the Minister of Finance, when these loans—or any one among them—can be paid off. It is impossible to know, because the proportion of the receipts allotted to amortisation cannot increase; it only takes a certain share of the receipts, having no progressive movement. With the annual increase in the value of the bonds, the amortisation will be less effective every year, while the higher the price rises the more remote becomes the time for paying off the loan. The whole of the resources available are devoted to increasing the amount of the interest, and it may be eighty or it may be a hundred years before the loan will be wiped out.

It is, however, estimated by some specialists that, assuming the surplus of the assigned Greek revenue continues as to-day, and that should the exchange, which is now at par, remain there, by means only of the increase of interest on the sinking fund there would be a resumption of the full interest within fifty or sixty years. The question is, Would it not be much better for the bondholders to possess a consolidated security, endowed at the same time with an amortisation fund?

What the Government will doubtless propose in due course is a new loan of the 4 per cent. type, to be paid off by the sinking fund in, say, sixty-five or seventy years. The bonds would thus enjoy at once a certain interest, for which, under present circumstances, the holders might possibly have to wait for from eight to ten years. But before this conversion can take place, not only would the consent of the International Financial Commission be necessary, but the present commercial treaties with the Powers interested would have to be determined, and nothing could be done in regard to the conversion of the loans until six months after

such determination. The treaties referred to were made some thirty years ago, and much has transpired in the world's commercial and industrial conditions since then.

The present disposition of the International Financial Commission is to oppose any conversion scheme. Although the subject has not, as a matter of fact, come before the Chamber of Deputies for discussion, and still less before the Commission for approval officially, from personal conversation which I have had with some of the members of the Commission, I feel justified in saying that the suggestion will be hostilely received. There are certain among the members who say that if it could be assured that the favourable conditions which prevail to-day were to become permanent, and that the excellent good faith of the present Government—which no one could possibly impugn—could be perpetuated with all of its successors, there would be no objection whatever to the conversion as contemplated; but these same critics aver that there is no such security, and that no such confidence can be felt. In any case, they are of opinion that the Commission must continue to exist in some sort of form for the protection of the bondholders, who would incur—they believe—some danger were the powers of the Commission to be diminished by a fraction. It is asserted by them that the retention of the services of the Commission untouched are as necessary for the general financial welfare of the country as for the bondholders, although there is a very natural tendency among the Greeks themselves to abolish the Commission as a whole.

CHAPTER IX

The Budget for 1912–13—Constitutional requirements—Receipts and expenditure—Strong position—Customs—Increase in receipts—Customs police—Direct taxation—Latest imposts—Anticipated revenues—Difficulty in collection—Resistance against certain laws—M. Vénizélos' land tax—Direct taxation—Monopolies—Stamps—Income tax—Commissary of Finance—Agricultural imposts—Succession duties—Inconsistent taxation—Reforms introduced.

MUCH comment and no little pessimistic criticism were devoted to the Budget which was presented early this year (1912), the first since M. Coromilas became the Minister of Finance. It may be observed that in accordance with Article 60 of the Constitution of 1911, the Parliament votes, in ordinary session, the State Budget for the following year, and approves of it after comparing it with the statement of the previous financial period. All receipts and expenditure have to appear upon the Budget and upon the statement.

The Budget has to be presented to Parliament within the two first months of the session. After having been examined by a special commission, it is voted by instalments and upon four separate days by calling over the separate Budget of each Ministry.

Within a period of a year at the latest from the end of the financial period, the Budget account has to be presented to the Chamber. It is then examined by a special commission of the members, and is thereafter approved by the Chamber in conformity with the provisions of its rules.

No tax of any kind can be applied or levied except

by law. Neither can any salary or indemnity be included in the State Budget, unless previously granted by a private or a special law.

Each financial period extends over 22 months, from January of one year to October 30th of another year.

Operations in connection with receipts and expenditure can only take place in regard to the financial Bill when carried out in conformity with the legal provisions. Among the legal preventive measures, that concerning the organisation of the previous *visa* of expenditure for the Treasury is the most important. Generally speaking, the budgetary system is largely influenced by the French system.

The Budget for the year 1912-13 is as follows :—

RECEIPTS.

	Dr.
Taxes	93,164,002
Rates and duties	28,301,195
Fiscal revenues on landed and other property ...	8,105,201
Sales arising from landed and other property ...	722,100
Receipts (various)	6,546,576
Arrears of previous financial periods, &c.... ...	3,217,100
Revenues from legacies and the Thessalian Agricultural Fund	1,611,370
Extraordinary receipts	2,401,101
Total	144,118,645

The receipts from the extraordinary State budget for the 1912 financial period are fixed at 40,050,000 dr.

Expenditure for the same period is :—

	Dr.
Ministry of Finance	74,090,265.22
Foreign Office	4,457,740.55
Ministry of Justice	6,703,000.55
Home Office	17,759,648.00
Ministry of Religious and Public Instruction ...	6,133,795.65
Ministry of National Economy	3,849,784.00
War Office	21,530,946.77
Admiralty	8,801,339.00
Total	143,326,519.74

The expenditure of the extraordinary Budget is fixed at :—

	Dr.
Ministry of Finance	39,700,000
Home Office	350,000

The expenditure of the Ministry of Finance may be analysed as follows :—

	Dr.
Public debt	36,626,047 56
State obligations	11,726,924 54
Financial administration	25,737,293 12
Total	74,090,265 22

Under the same department (Ministry of Finance) is the control of the Customs. The receipts during the last two years for import duties have increased from 44,349,534 dr. in 1910 to 46,318,002 dr. in 1911.

These duties constitute one of the State's chief sources of revenue. The Customs tariff now in force was passed at the end of 1892. Since then it has undergone numerous modifications, due chiefly to fiscal necessities ; but it has also become protective, due to different duties which were voted to support various home industries ; at the same time, many temporary admissions were granted to several industries, owing, again, to the same protective spirit.

In 1905 the duty on wheat was brought up to 0.09 dr. per oke (1,240 grammes), viz., 45 per cent. of its value.

The chief Customs centre is the Piræus Harbour. Its import duties amounted to 25,302,489 dr. in 1910, and to 27,146,127 dr. in 1911.

The increase of receipts in 1911 arises chiefly from the larger imports of corn, owing to the bad Greek harvest of 1909. The receipts for the year 1912 are valued in the Budget at 40,400,000 dr.

The further revision of the Customs legislation is entrusted to the care of a Board created in virtue of law. It has already started working upon this matter,

but it seems clear that all foreign commercial treaties will eventually have to be abrogated in order that a revision of the whole tariff may be arrived at. At the same time negotiations will begin for the conclusion of new treaties. The new financial legislation also aims at a codification and re-creation of the various laws regulating the Customs.

According to a law which was recently voted, a special authority is to be formed, under the name of Customs Police, to prevent the continuance of smuggling. With regard to Customs formalities, the captain of any ship coming from abroad is to hand over to the Customs sanitary authorities, upon arrival, a statement made in duplicate of the cargo. After unloading, a detailed statement is further required in order to pass the Customs. In the event of any dispute between the Customs and the shipper of the goods, a Commission, sitting at the Ministry of Finance, decides the question without appeal.

Direct taxes are divided into: (*a*) taxes on agricultural produce, (*b*) taxes on other revenues, and (*c*) complementary taxes on the revenues.

The direct taxes of the first category (*a*) are again subdivided into those collected by the cashiers and those which are collected by the treasurers. The latter amount to 6,641,000 dr.

Taxation in Greece generally may be divided into the following categories :—

1. Direct taxes, including land tax (which now takes the place of that on ploughing animals), oil, wine, currants, Ionian Islands (export duties on agricultural produce); cattle tax, licence tax upon professions, house tax, tax upon net profits of joint stock companies and mines, and sundries.
2. Duties and excise upon articles of consumption, Customs duties upon imports, excise on tobacco, spirits, and wine.

3. Stamps and duties, consular fees, posts, telegraphs, fines, and sundries.
4. Monopolies upon cigarette-paper, playing-cards, tobacco, matches, petroleum, and salt.
5. Revenue from State property such as real property, royalties on mines, public establishments, forests, and fisheries.

New taxation in 1910 was as follows :—

Tax upon.	Estimated Yield.	Probable Yield.
	£	£
Building sites	12,000	2,800
Succession duties	16,000	7,600
Duties upon donations during life	2,000	1,636
Steam boilers	2,000	—
Insurance companies	3,160	3,000
Incomes	40,000	—
Tobacco (surtax)...	100,000	89,988
Spirits	60,000	44,416
„ denatorated	12,000	8,720
„ carbide of calcium	4,000	6,136
Gas and electricity	4,000	4,000
Native malt	2,000	—
Gunpowder	16,000	10,892
Stamps	16,000	12,740
Increased consular fees	9,000	9,000
Transfer fees	8,000	8,000
Total	£306,160	£208,928

The excise on wine was introduced only in 1893, while the income tax, which was first levied in 1910, was again brought forward last year (1911) at the same time as the land tax was introduced and neither of which has as yet returned anything to the Treasury, again resembling the abortive land tax imposed upon England by the industrious Mr. Lloyd George, with this difference, that it has not and never will cost the Greek Government about £300,000 to collect £15,000, as was the case with our brilliant Chancellor of the Exchequer.

It might be useful to note wherein the Government is

likely to be disappointed in respect to revenue from some sources and reduced yields from others. As it seems to some, there will be difficulty in realising the whole or even the greater portion of £88,000 from the new land tax; while the anticipated £40,000 from income tax is also doubtful. Then the Ionian Islands are likely to return £62,000 less on account of the poor olive-oil crop; tobacco will return £58,000 less, monopolies about £100,000, cigarette-paper £8,000, forests and fisheries £17,000, and above £26,000 has to be reckoned as a deficit upon the payment of arrears in previous years. On the whole, however, the Government may anticipate—with reservations, I believe—a total revenue of over £5,000,000, in addition to a further £3,800,000 in the form of "extraordinary revenue," such as interest from State railways, the profits upon agricultural land, legacies, and proceeds of the last public loans.

The collection of taxes in Greece is by no means an easy undertaking owing to the widely-dispersed character of the population. The Government has long found difficulties in this direction, which, however, by reason of the new system introduced, are becoming of less serious importance day by day. As an instance of what the Greek Government has had to contend with in times past, it may be mentioned that between the years of 1882 and 1891 the total arrears in the taxation levied amounted to 75,278,420 dr., or an average shortage for these ten years of 7,527,842 dr. per annum. Subsequently, about 2,598,000 dr. of this amount were collected, but the loss of ordinary revenue was not less than 3,654,000 dr. per annum; thus, if taken for the whole ten years, the loss amounted to 36,549,202 dr.

To-day, as indicated, the task of collecting the Government taxes is rendered far more simple and also considerably more effective; nevertheless there does not prevail in Greece, any more than in this country,

a complete accord among the people as to the necessity of paying any taxes at all. Occasionally a distinct and widespread opposition manifests itself, as, for instance, in the case of the Arable Land Law which was introduced in July of last year (1911), and which proved as unpopular in the majority of the agricultural districts as has the insurance tax in England. This law imposes a tax upon the produce of arable land, and replaces the old tax which was formerly put upon ploughing animals, such as ploughing oxen. It is framed upon a Cretan law long existent and of which M. Vénizélos, himself a Cretan, is much enamoured. The impost amounts to but 5 per cent. of the produce, after a deduction of 20 per cent. of all other cereals which are used as fodder has been made, and after 400 okes (=10 cwt.) have been deducted for the use of the household. In the case of small cultivators who produce less than 70 bushels, the minimum deduction is 20 bushels in the case of wheat and 16 bushels in the case of other cereals. The taxes may be paid either in kind or in specie.

The spirit of opposition in which the new law was received may be, in some measure, attributed to its association in the minds of the peasants with the old and the much-disliked tithe payment which was practically the same impost but in another form. Fortunately, however, for the people, M. Vénizélos has been enabled, by reason of the especially strong financial conditions which prevail in Greece to-day and which have given the Government a surplus of 7,000,000 dr., to suspend the operation of the Arable Land Law until at least the middle of next year (1913).

Inasmuch as the surplus amounts to so many millions of drachmæ, the suspension of this tax will not in any way be felt detrimentally, and I am assured that, so long as any appreciable surplus exists, M. Vénizélos is not likely to put the Arable Land Law into effect.

When the tithe amounted to 7 per cent. it yielded

ATHENS: THE CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES, RUE DU STADE, FACING THE ROYAL STABLES. (See p. 72.)

to the revenue a sum of about £150,000 per annum. In spite of the fact that the percentage of the tithe or tax has since been much reduced, it has to be remembered that the vast Thessalian Province, which is practically all given over to the pursuit of agriculture, has been conceded to Greece, thus considerably swelling the net proceeds from this source.

Besides suspending the operation of the Arable Land Law for the minimum period of twelve months, M. Vénizélos has also cancelled the objectionable method hitherto in force of farming out the collection of taxes, which practice proved very unpopular in spite of the efforts which were made by the Government to protect the taxpayers from any undue pressure or hardships. The Prime Minister has now publicly announced that taxes will be collected by the communal authorities, the new law to this effect being put into operation by the Government in the coming year (1913).

Among the direct taxes (*b*) are included the taxes on licences (3,690,000 dr.) and those on buildings (4,600,000 dr.). In the same category occur income tax, taxes on the dividends of limited companies, 5 per cent. (yielding about 985,000 dr.), and the taxes upon legacies and deeds of gift (realising about 380,000 dr.).

In category (*c*) are the supplementary income tax, which was applied for the first time in 1911, and which forms a tax on income of all kinds above 4,000 dr. The maximum is 3 per cent.

Among other indirect taxes, which, with the exception of the Customs duties, bring in about 15,623,000 dr., occur the duty upon tobacco of 10 dr. per oke (realising about 11,050,000 dr.), the duties upon alcohol (realising about 3,160,000 dr.), the lighting tax (yielding about 680,000 dr.), and the duty on explosives (bringing in 350,000 dr.).

The monopolies of the State are six in number and consist of cigarette-paper (2.40 dr. per oke of tobacco), playing-cards, matches, petroleum, salt (15 lepta per

oke), and saccharine. The receipts of the first five monopolies, together with those of the monopoly for the emery of Naxos, are allocated to the service of the old foreign debt (see previous pages). According to the 1912 Budget the receipts for the first five monopolies should amount to 13,031,000 dr.

The stamps allocated to the service of the public debt include both ordinary postage and revenue stamps and stamped papers. The receipts of the State for the sale of stamps amounted to 14,460,000 dr. for the year 1910, and to 15,295,000 dr. for the year 1911. For 1912 a sum of 16,000,000 dr. is anticipated.

The following are subject to stamp duty: (*a*) any papers addressed to a public authority or concerning legal and civil acts and any papers produceable as attestation to any authority; (*b*) any legacy of property after death; (*c*) passage and railway tickets, and tickets for theatrical performances, concerts, and balls.

The total receipts provided for under the head of stamp duties in the 1912 Budget amount to 16,634,000 dr. Among the various items may be mentioned: school stamps (1,075,000 dr.); theatre stamps (165,000 dr.); stamps on the dividend parts of limited companies (265,000 dr.); stamps on steamship tickets, in gold (240,000 dr.); in paper money (240,000 dr.); stamps on railway tickets (765,000 dr.); and consular rights in gold (1,000,000 dr.).

The verification and assessment of taxes are tasks entrusted in each province to a Commissary of Finance, and their collection is effected by tax-collectors under the direction of a treasurer, who is chief of the service. They are generally collected by means of lists drawn up by the Commissary after the returns, which the ratepayers are compelled to make.

The said taxes are: land tax on yoked animals; on the kitchen gardens; on the pasture lands; on

oil, with the exception of that of the Seven Islands; on small cattle; on large cattle, and on cattle refunded to the boroughs.

The taxes collected by the Customs amount to about 6,539,000 dr. and are derived from export products such as figs, Laconia produce, Seven Islands oil, raisins, &c. Among the agricultural produce which contributes mostly to the wealth of the country, raisins occupy the first place. The State receipts amount approximately to 4,000,000 dr. per annum under this head.

The grapes which are consumed in Greece are free of all duty; on the other hand, the raisins, of which nearly the whole production is bought by foreign countries, pay a duty collected by the Privileged Company called *Eniaia*, which has to hand it over to the State. If the exports of raisins fluctuate between 240,000,000 to 250,000,000 lbs., the said company pays to the Public Treasury 4,000,000 dr.; if they exceed 250,000,000 lbs. or are below 240,000,000 lbs., the tax of 4,000,000 dr. is increased or reduced at the rate of 18 dr. per 1,000 lbs.

According to the Budget of 1912 the average production of the 1912–13 crop is valued at 320,000,000 lbs., and the average exports between 240,000,000 and 250,000,000 lbs.; in consequence a revenue of 4,000,000 dr. will revert to the State.

The tax upon oil, with the exception of that of the Seven Islands, is valued at 1,265,000 dr., and the tax upon the Seven Islands oil, which is collected by the Customs, at 1,710,000 dr.

The receipts from this tax naturally depend upon the amount of the crop. According to approximative calculations one may say that two crops out of five prove to be good and two out of seven to be exceptionally abundant. The production of oil in the kingdom was estimated at 50,063,000 okes for the year 1909 and 14,233,000 okes for the year 1910. As much as 66,850,000 okes are estimated for the years 1911–12.

It is only within the past few years—in fact, since the year 1909—that there have been any succession duties in Greece, and this in spite of the many immense fortunes which have been left to heirs. Until then the only taxation was in the form of legal stamps, and the same principle of enriching the revenue is still maintained in regard to bequests made to the under-age children of the deceased. All other amounts which are left, however, are, since the new law came into force, subjected to heavy duties, and the Government have derived a large amount of revenue from the impositions. Thus in 1910 the total value of private fortunes taxed reached the sum of 7,678,274 dr., or, say, £307,135; and of this amount the Government received 40·93 per cent. from succession as between brothers and sisters, 30·27 per cent. between husband and wife, 11·19 per cent. between nephews, 7·36 per cent. between parents and sons or daughters-in-law, 2·73 per cent. between relations passing the sixth degree (of removal), 1·51 per cent. between first cousins, 0·23 per cent. between second cousins, and 0·94 per cent. upon sums bequeathed to charities.

Inasmuch as legacies to children do not come under the tax, the many large sums which have been so left do not figure in these returns at all. But these have been conservatively estimated at another 16,749,539 dr. per annum. Thus, with the addition of many small fortunes under £1,000 in value and those amounts which escape the vigilance of the taxing authorities, we have a total of the private fortunes in one year amounting to nearly 26,000,000 dr. or, say, over £1,000,000, which, for a country with barely 2,700,000 inhabitants, is somewhat remarkable.

Taxation has in times past been imposed with but small regard to either consistency or consideration, with the result that while some individuals were paying —or were at least liable for—a number of taxes which should not have been levied, others escaped altogether.

Income Tax

On the other hand, new imposts which were introduced by one Ministry had been forgiven or failed to be collected by another. Thus was it, for instance, with the tax upon the crops which was introduced last year, but which this year has not been, and probably will not be, collected.

The income tax, again, which was introduced for the first time in 1911, has up till now been allowed to remain practically a dead letter so far as actual collection is concerned, the Government having expressed itself satisfied to receive for 1912, at any rate, a "return" of each individual's income based upon that of 1911–12. The actual amount which will become due after the many and liberal deductions have been allowed can make, one would imagine, but little difference to the individuals who are liable, and will hardly help fill the Treasury coffers to overflowing. The Greeks hitherto have happily been unacquainted with an income tax or, indeed, with any very onerous taxes at all, except, perhaps, upon luxuries, which are somewhat heavily rated. Thus, a four-wheeled carriage, if used for any but trade or commercial purposes, must pay an annual tax of £25.

All incomes over 4,000 dr. (£160) are subject to tax, the claims being made upon the assessed annual rental of the house which is lived in. The deductions allowed include all outgoing expenses, such as interest paid upon mortgages, costs of production, &c.

CHAPTER X

Banking—National Bank of Greece—Note-issuing privileges—Nature of business—Prosperity in 1911—Dividends—M. J. A. Valaoritis' Administration—Capacity of management—Ionian Bank—Abrogation of charter—Origin and career—Capital and character of business—Dividends—Management—Bank of Athens—Expansion of business—Increase of capital—Prosperity in 1911—M. Z. C. Matsas—Banque d'Orient—M. M. P. Camara—Bank of Crete.

THE National Bank of Greece came into existence in March of 1841, by order of a special law. The capital was fixed at 5,000,000 dr., which is equal to about £200,000. Little by little the capital has been raised until, by 1885, it amounted to 20,000,000 dr. (say, £800,000), and it remains at that figure to-day. In common with one other bank only—the Ionian, whose privilege, however, expires in 1920 and cannot be renewed—the National Bank enjoys the privilege of issuing notes, and has done so since August, 1841; while, under a fresh regulation granted in February, 1903, the privilege was extended to the end of the year 1930.

The bank carries on all the ordinary business of a financial institution of this character—discounting bills, making advances, granting mortgages, opening credits, and introducing new public loans. It accepts the private accounts of depositors, and conducts their business—such as collecting dividends, paying instalments falling due, and buying and selling securities. It likewise grants advances to provincial municipalities and other public bodies, and finances undertakings of a

ATHENS : THE NATIONAL BANK OF GREECE, RUE D'EOLE.

Established in 1841. Capital, £800,000 (20,000,000 dr.). The only Bank besides the Ionian Bank enjoying the privilege of issuing notes.

(See p. 134.)

reproductive nature, proving, upon occasions, very serviceable to small communities, which, for lack of ready money, may have been unable to proceed with certain necessary enterprises. At the end of 1911 the total amount of the bank's loans to municipalities and other public bodies reached over 61,350,000 dr., as against a total of 48,598,000 dr. for the year 1910.

The bank has made three important bond issues, such as the 1880 Premium Loan of 60,000,000 frs. at 4 per cent. interest, afterwards reduced to 3 per cent., and its currency loans of 1904 and 1912, at 2½ per cent. interest, amounting together to 50,500,000 dr. The bank has also taken a prominent part in the negotiation and issuing of all Greek State Loans, and has been a leading factor in the arrangements covering the old debt which led to the institution of international control in 1898, being appointed the custodian of all ceded revenues which insure the service of the Public Debt. As a striking fact in this connection, and as showing the high esteem in which the bank is held in the financial world, it may be stated that upon the occasion of the latest Greek External Loan (that of 1910 for 150,000,000 frs. at 4 per cent. interest), the intervention of the International Commission was not found to be necessary, the guarantees insuring the service of the loan being placed in direct charge of the National Bank of Greece, and, it may be added, to the perfect satisfaction of the investing public.

It is also to this bank's clear-sighted policy that must be attributed, to a great extent, the happy solution of the very grave currency crisis of some ten or twelve years ago, and the practical abolition of the gold premium, without the official resumption of special payment by the State.

The balance-sheets of the National Bank of Greece are always notable for the fullness of their information regarding the financial condition of the State, and for their extreme clearness, as becomes an institution of

this importance and responsibility. That which was issued with the annual report of the year 1911 shows that the total amount of its available funds at the end of said year was 135,695,209 dr., making an increase of 36,088,820 dr. over the previous year. Of the above 135,000,000 dr., 109,735,911 dr. were in gold, against an outstanding note circulation of 135,347,559 dr.

As will be observed, the year 1911 was an encouraging one in many respects, showing, as it did, a general improvement of nearly 22,000,000 dr. upon all classes of business done by this institution. Certain alterations have this year (1912) been introduced in regard to the administration of the bank, by which the scope of its utility will be even more widely extended. The development of the country is so intimately connected with the prosperity of the bank itself, and is so much dependent upon it, that the directorate have determined to participate more generally than before in such attractive schemes of economic development as may present themselves.

The reserves stand at 13,500,000 dr. A dividend at the rate of 20 per cent. per annum has now been paid since 1908, and the present value of the 1,000 dr. nominal shares stands at 4,200 dr. The amount of deposits has increased during 1911 by about 13,000,000 dr., and now reaches 200,000,000 dr., which constitutes an excellent proof as to the improved financial stability and increased wealth of the nation.

In addition to its head office in Athens, the National Bank has some fourty-four branches in various parts of the kingdom.

M. Jean A. Valaoritis succeeded to the governorship of the National Bank, after the retirement of M. Etienne Streit, in the spring of 1911. During his comparatively brief period of management the advance made in the affairs of this financial institution has been pronounced. M. Valaoritis is regarded as a great authority upon currency questions and finance

generally, and his last reports upon the monetary conditions of the country have been widely read and as widely quoted.

The administration of the National Bank of Greece has always been remarkable for the fact that while the bank itself has made substantial profits, the managers have not become personally even moderately rich men. M. Etienne Streit, who was connected with the bank for some forty years, for sixteen of which he was governor, retired in 1910 with scarcely more than £10,000, and he lives in Athens to-day in a particularly modest style. M. Jean A. Valaoritis, who has raised the influence and the resources of the institution to even a higher level, although comfortably off, is far from being a wealthy man. Nevertheless, his opportunities of amassing a fortune from his knowledge of finance and local conditions must have been altogether exceptional. It speaks very eloquently both for him and for his predecessor in office that these opportunities should have been availed of exclusively for the benefit of the institution over the fortunes of which they presided, and not in any way for their own.

The Ionian Bank was founded in London as a limited liability company in 1839, thereby being the oldest existing Greek banking institution. In 1840 it obtained a royal charter; it was re-registered in March, 1883, when the charter was determined, but, at the same time, the bank's convention was extended from April, 1905, until April, 1920. Like the National Bank of Greece, this institution is authorised by law to issue notes to the full extent of its paid-up capital; but it was provided by the Act of 1886 that notes which by Greek law are, for the time being, forced currency and inconvertible, shall not be deemed to be notes within the meaning of this Act.

The authorised capital of the bank is £600,000, having been increased in 1908 from £515,510, but

only a little over £250,000 worth of notes were in circulation at the end of last year (1911). The bank does a safe and conservative business; it is very well managed, and has succeeded in losing but little in the way of bad debts. In the recent Egyptian financial difficulties the bank sustained some losses, but these amounted to a trifling sum in comparison with the large turnover which the institution handles. The dividends distributed average 6 per cent.

The two other more important banks in Greece are the Bank of Athens and the Banque d'Orient. The first-named institution was formed in 1894, the capital being 60,000,000 dr. (say, £2,400,000), and the reserve fund stands at 9,095,000 dr. Originally the capital stood at 10,000,000 dr.; the further increases being made gradually as the business of the bank expanded; thus, it was raised to 20,000,000 dr. in 1906, and later on to the amount already mentioned. The operations of the bank are purely economic, and it affords much encouragement to such national undertakings as the mercantile marine and other enterprises of a reproductive nature. The deposits exceed 140,000,000 dr., which fact proves the stability of the institution and its high standing in the confidence of the public.

M. Z. C. Matsas, the Administrator-General of the Bank of Athens, is one of the three brothers who occupy prominent positions in the Greek financial and industrial world, one being general manager of the Piræus, Athens, and Peloponnesus Railway, and another manager of the Greek Mines and Public Works Company.

The Banque d'Orient was founded in 1904; it has a capital of 25,000,000 frs. (say, £1,000,000). It carries on the usual banking business, and works in conjunction with the National Bank of Greece, of which, indeed, it may be considered an affiliated concern, and an agent of exploitation in the leading markets of Turkey and Egypt, where most of the trade is in Greek hands.

Bank of Crete

M. M. P. Camara is the general manager of the Banque d'Orient, and is considered one of the best-informed authorities upon finance of the day. His management has been characterised by great caution and circumspection, and his advice is sought by many besides the immediate customers of the bank.

In 1899 the Bank of Crete was established through the joint efforts of the National Bank of Greece, of M. Hambro, and of M. Eugenidi. It was intended to replace the branch of the National Bank of Greece which had already been created in La Canée. The capital was fixed at 10,000,000 dr. (£400,000), divided into 40,000 shares of £10 each, of which only £5 have been called. When the shares were offered to the public, they were over-subscribed five times. In fact, the bank has enjoyed almost precisely the same privileges in Crete that its promoting parent possesses in Greece. It has paid moderate but continuous dividends, and it is considered a thoroughly sound and progressive institution.

For the first half-year of 1912 the gross profits amounted to 337,821 frs., as against 313,244 frs. for 1911, and the net profits to 152,951 frs., as against 141,176 frs. for the preceding six months. The dividend was raised from 3 to $3\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.

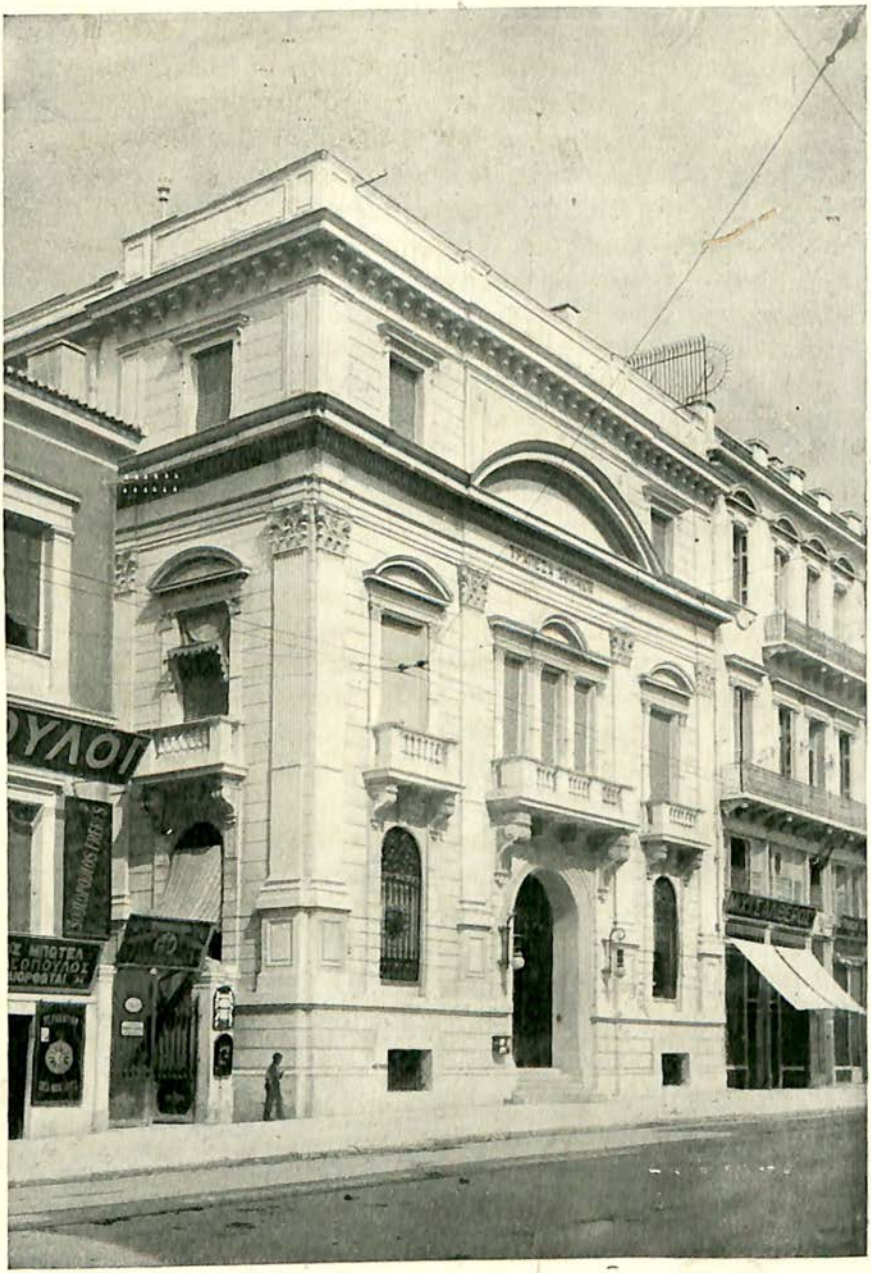
CHAPTER XI

Exchange—Currency—New coinage in 1911–12—National lottery—Improvements effected—Popular methods adopted—Purposes to which proceeds are devoted.

Insurance—Risks—Legislation—British offices—Dissatisfaction with new laws—Serious conflagrations in Athens—Leading offices—Native Mutual Society—Business in 1911.

HAPPILY, the question of a falling or rising exchange, so far as Greece is concerned, appears to have been settled for all time. Nevertheless, it has played so important a part in the economic history of the country that some reference to it should be made here. One must go back for considerably more than half a century to trace the commencement of the acute exchange question, since the fixed currency of bills issued by the banks came into being on April 4, 1848. The period during which this forced currency continued upon this occasion was eight months (April 4th–December 19th), while upon the second occasion—namely, from December 30, 1868, until July 15, 1870—it endured for eighteen months. For yet a third time, and even a fourth, the same expedient was resorted to, in the first case the time lasting seven and a half years (June 15, 1877, until December 31, 1884), and on the last occasion for twenty years (September 30, 1885, until December 31, 1904). In other words, out of a total period of fifty-seven years forced currency remained in practice for nearly thirty years.

It would occupy far too much space in this volume to enter fully upon an explanation of this state of



ATHENS: THE BANK OF ATHENS, RUE DU STADE.
Established 1894. Capital, £2,400,000.
(See p. 138.)

[To face p. 141.

affairs; but for those who are interested sufficiently in the question to need further enlightenment there exist several practical publications, the most useful, because the most authoritative, of which is undoubtedly the work of M. Jean A. Valaoritis, formerly Sub-Governor, but now and for some time past the extremely able Governor of the National Bank of Greece. M. Valaoritis, who is accepted as an authority upon the question of exchange, has issued several valuable publications, the first of which appeared in 1902, upon this interesting but perplexing question.

During the past few years the shortage of currency has been very seriously felt, chiefly during the second half of each year when sales of produce are most numerous and money is dispersed throughout the country. Many efforts have been made from time to time to introduce greater elasticity and sufficiency of both the metallic and fiduciary currency, but it is only recently that any success has attended these attempts. The National Bank had been authorised to considerably increase its note issue, that institution, however, being under the obligation to sell gold at 100·1 and drafts at 100·5.

Silver coins have come back into the country to the amount of over 4,500,000 dr., and in good condition, after being, no doubt, hoarded away at the time when the depreciation of paper made it profitable to export the silver to other countries of the Latin Union. The Mexicans did the same thing until prevented by law, and other Latin-American countries have under similar circumstances applied the same simple process of making a profit out of the prevailing conditions. Although the large amount mentioned has come back within the last three years, it is quite insufficient for the public requirements, and, as a consequence, the Government has ordered several millions of silver drachmæ to be struck in the Paris Mint. In 1911 there were struck 3,381,817 pieces, of which 1,500,000

were of one drachma and 1,881,817 of two drachmæ, or a total value of 5,263,634 dr.

The total amount of new coinage to be struck is 9,451,976 dr., of which 1,737,958 dr. will be obtained by reminting debased coins of previous issues. These amounts, added to about 1,000,000 dr. which remained in the country—for the most part in the vaults of the National Bank—will provide a total circulation of 15,000,000 dr. in silver. Of this amount some 12,000,000 dr. will replace the small notes of 1 dr. and 2 dr. each which have been withdrawn from circulation, and 2,000,000 dr. in copper coins which had been issued in excess of the requirements of the public. More than two-thirds of these coins have already been withdrawn from use by the National Bank, in conformity with the law of April 1, 1910.

The national lottery, which is held in support of the Greek fleet and the nation's antiquities, underwent a modification last December in regard to the character of the drawing, while the tickets were also issued as from January 1, 1912, in such a manner that portions were readily detachable. They are now made in two parts, of rectangular form, the first remaining a whole section, the second being subdivided into four parts, also rectangular in form, and each being valid for the first drawing held on the 10th of March (February 26th old style). The idea of issuing the lottery tickets in this new form and the general improvement in the lottery arrangements was that of M. Georges A. Cofinas, the able Chief of Section in the Ministry of Finance. The Greek lotteries are among the most honest and most orderly of any undertakings of their kind, while the prizes are of a very valuable nature. This particular lottery appeals strongly to the Greeks themselves, since the proceeds partly go towards strengthening the fleet; to strangers its appeal is equally forcible, since the proceeds are partly devoted to the maintenance of existing and the search for further archæo-

logical treasures—an enterprise in which the whole world is commonly interested. In this regard, and entirely through funds raised by means of the "Archæological Lottery" since 1901, excavations and preservations of monuments have been carried out at Ithome, Lykosoura, Eleusis, Sovnion, Mycenæ, Epidauros, Eretria, Kephallenia, Marathon, Amorgos, Thorikos, Ægina, and at the Acropolis at Athens. Several millions of drachmæ have been thus expended. From a first annual issue of 100,000 tickets, to-day over 235,000 are disposed of annually mainly through the instrumentality of men and boys who shout their wares in the streets in loud and aggravating tones, the whole thoroughfare resounding with their lusty voices. Such methods may be justified by the results achieved; but to the average resident of Athens and other large centres they prove, upon occasions, extremely trying.

The annual lottery, although, as mentioned, held on behalf of the national fleet and Grecian antiquities, is largely participated in by foreigners. It is conducted in an unexceptional manner, and is under the direct supervision of M. G. A. Cofinas, the Chief of Section in the Ministry of Finance. The lots in each drawing comprise the following prizes: 1 of 80,000 dr., 1 of 20,000 dr., 2 of 2,500 dr., 6 of 1,000 dr., 15 of 400 dr., 25 of 200 dr., and 1,950 of 40 dr., or a total of 200,000 dr. The drawings are usually conducted on a Sunday, and they take place in the hall of the Zappeion building.

Up to within the last few years insurance business in Greece has been affected to a considerable extent by the necessarily severe laws which had been passed in connection with the crime of incendiarism. These enactments called for a death sentence in the event of conviction, and consequently but few juries could be found willing to return a verdict of guilty against an

accused in the absence of the proofs against him being overwhelming.

In view of the difficulty in obtaining convictions, no insurance company would undertake the risks involved; but upon the introduction later on of a modification of the law relating to incendiarism, which reduced the penalty from a sentence of death to a term of imprisonment, varying according to the nature of the offence and the attendant circumstances, the insurance business revived, and at present it shows some promise of further expansion.

The British fire offices carrying on business in Greece have included the Sun, the Commercial Union, the Norwich Union, the Guardian, the Royal Exchange, the Phœnix, and the Western Insurance Company (of Canada).

When the law relating to the compulsory lodgment by each corporation of substantial deposits as precautionary money, amounting to £8,000, was promulgated, energetic protests were made by the representatives in Greece of the British companies, and these were then strongly supported by the British Minister, Sir Francis E. H. Elliot.

Protests, respectful but emphatic, were urged throughout the various stages of the Bill, and right up to the end of the discussion in the Chamber; then, when victory for the opponents seemed probable, for some reasons unknown the British Minister withdrew his consent to the protest. Following this unexpected and unexplained action upon the part of Sir Francis Elliot, the provision, which, as indicated, might not otherwise have been proceeded with, was at once brought into existence.

The passing of this Act may be regarded as an instance of "panic legislation," occasioned by the disappearance of a certain fraudulent Spanish insurance corporation some years previously, and which, having collected a considerable sum in premiums, turned tail

when the first claim was presented and fled from the country. Determined that such an experience should not be repeated, the Government very properly passed the present Act, although, perhaps, in rather a hurried manner, it is to be feared, and without sufficient consideration of detail, in much about the same manner as our own Insurance Act was brought into existence by Mr. Lloyd George.

At the time of the introduction of this new legislation, the London Fire Office Committee, upon whose Board practically every fire insurance company of the world is represented, passed a resolution forbidding the British companies carrying on business in Greece to comply with the terms of the Act; but finally this objection was withdrawn, and the insurance offices were left a free hand to accept or to reject the new terms, as they might decide. The British insurance companies, nevertheless, withdrew from Greece, with the exception of the Commercial Union; while the North British and Mercantile Insurance Company took up the abandoned connection of the Royal Exchange. At this time also the Sun Insurance Office had the largest and choicest of the business, but it ranged itself among the other offices which withdrew from Greece, and it has not since resumed its connection in the kingdom. This office's policies and risks have since been transferred to a French company—namely, L'Union de Paris. The North British and Mercantile Insurance Company, whose agents in Athens are Messrs. Daffa Brothers, 81, University Street, have bought up the business in Greece of the Norwich Union, that of the Law Union and Crown (in Thessaly), and that of the Guardian (in Patras). The principal foreign offices at present established in Athens include La Compagnie l'Union (fire risks only), whose agents are Messrs. Panzaris and Condos; and Le Phénix Autrichien, of which M. Pascalingas is the local director.

It is considered by those who have had wide ex-

perience of the matter that the risks undertaken in Greece are, upon the whole, thoroughly sound, the city of Athens being deemed for fire risks a superior field of operation to that of Constantinople; while it is believed that there is abundant scope for a well-established British insurance company to pursue the business vigorously and to appoint reliable and energetic local agents, of whom several are to be found in various parts of the kingdom.

The two most serious drawbacks to carrying on fire insurance in Greece are the lack of sufficient water in Athens and the inefficiency of the fire brigades in most other parts of the kingdom. In some places, such, for instance, as the Ionian Islands, there exist no fire brigades whatever. Steps are now being taken in Athens to reorganise and provide the necessary equipment for the local fire brigade, while the question of water supply to the capital has been discussed in Chapter XXVI. of this volume.

The seriousness which a conflagration in the capital can assume was shown in connection with the fire which broke out in the Royal Palace on Christmas Eve of 1910, when practically the whole of the central portion of the building was destroyed, including the main ballroom and the trophy-room. The building, being public property, was not insured; but the personal property of the King was covered under a policy with the Assurances Générales de Trieste, which company, in conjunction with the Adriatica (also of Trieste), then held, and still holds, the greater portion of the fire policies issued in the kingdom of Greece.

Life insurance has made more decided headway in Greece of late years, the two companies carrying on the greater part of the business being the Gresham Life and the Assurances Générales de Trieste.

It may be laid down as a general rule in regard to insurance business that no safe conclusions as to the profitable or unprofitable nature of the transactions

ATHENS: LA BANQUE D'ORIENT, IN THE RUE DE SOPHOCLES.
Established in 1904. Capital, £1,000,000 (25,000,000 dr.).
(See p. 138.)

[To face p. 147.

entered into can be arrived at in a less period than thirty years. The Gresham Life office in Greece has been established for only seven years; therefore it is too soon to be able to state whether it has found it to be worth while doing business in that country. So far the company has been fortunate in not having had any serious claims to meet, while the fact that it confines itself to one branch of the insurance business only enables it to avoid the necessity of finding more than one deposit of 200,000 dr. (£8,000), which is demanded by the Government, under the new Insurance Law, for each branch of business carried on.

There are three prominent native insurance companies doing business in the Hellenic kingdom—namely, the Ethniki (National), the Anatolie (Orient), and the Attiqui (Attica), all of which take both fire and life risks. A considerable number of smaller concerns or agents of offices exist also.

The whole of the marine insurance of Greece has been hitherto in the hands of British and German offices, it being but quite recently that a large Greek company has been formed among prominent shipping and financial circles to handle this class of business. This is called the Greek Mutual Marine Insurance Company, with London offices at Billiter Square Buildings. The existing laws in connection with this branch of insurance call for no deposit being made.

In the early months of this year (1912) it was decided to form a mutual maritime insurance society, with the title of Assurances Pan-Helleniques. For many years past it has been thought that the rich profits which now go to foreign—and principally British—marine insurance companies might very well be conferred upon local societies; the relations between the assurers and the assured have likewise not always been of the best. Complaints upon both sides have been frequent, and it is felt that the best way to avoid them in future will be to withdraw from foreign offices

as much as possible. The newly formed assurance society will doubtless prove successful, since among the members are found the names of some of the largest owners of vessels plying between Greek home and foreign ports.

During the year 1911 the sixteen different life assurance offices, of which many, as have been shown, are foreign, collected premiums to the amount of 1,674,958 dr., and paid to the State a tax of 50,421 dr. The average amount of premiums received by the whole of the insurance offices—foreign and native—doing business in Greece is estimated at 10,000,000 dr. per annum, and it is said that of this amount less than one-half is returned to the assured, the balance being the gains of the assurers. It is the fact that so much of this fat profit finds its way into the pockets of foreigners that distresses the Greek financial writers in the press, who are continually advocating more local business and the gradual withdrawal from foreign offices. Once public confidence is fully restored, the local companies may be able to profit by the at present strong position.

There exist some eighty-five different limited liability companies in Greece, with a total capital of 280,345,000 dr., and during the past year (1911) they distributed among their members a sum exceeding 20,336,529 dr., in the form of dividends and bonuses. With but few exceptions these undertakings have earned substantial profits. In addition to the dividends distributed, such enterprises paid to the State 936,739 dr. in taxes, 287,000 dr. for stamps, and 171,899 dr. for transfer fees.

But a few years ago it was with great difficulty only that Greeks could be induced to subscribe to local enterprises of this character, and the facility with which industrial and financial associations are formed to-day prove that there is not alone a wide spirit of confidence but an accumulation of capital.

CHAPTER XII

Posts, telegraphs, and telephones—Staffs—Athens post office—Telegram charges—Telephone exchanges—Central personnel—Urban and suburban communications—Subscribers' privileges and fees—Government telegraphs—Phonogrammes—Employees' grades—Examinations—Salaries—Pensions—Retiring ages—Profits upon services—Possible deficit—Eastern Telegraph Company's stations—Zante station during earthquakes.

THE posts, telegraphs, and telephones at work in the kingdom are under Government control, and are administered from the one department in the Place Loudovicou. The chief staff consists of a Director-General and three chiefs of sections—the first being for the technical, the second for telegraphs, and the third for the posts. There are also eleven subordinate sections, each with its head, or chief, and secretary or secretaries. The Central Post Office is situated at Athens, as is also the Head Telegraph Office. Both are very well conducted on the whole, if not entirely free from deficiencies; they are, nevertheless, rather better regulated than the British Post Office.

In the city of Athens there is but one office where registrations, money orders, and postage stamps can be obtained; but several small establishments, mainly tobacco stores, are licensed to sell stamps. There are thirty-six letter-boxes distributed about the city, and these are cleared at frequent intervals—in fact, seven times a day. Letters are very seldom delayed or lost; and in the latter case immediate inquiry which the Department institutes usually leads to the restoration,

or some explanation being afforded. There are thirty-two foreign countries allied with Greece in the issuing and cashing of postal notes.

The Telegraph Department is as well managed as that of the Posts. There are five kinds of telegraphic dispatches used, namely: (1) the short words (50 lepta) telegram; (2) the 1 drachma, or 15 words; (3) the urgent, which costs three times the sum charged for either of the above; (4) the registered telegram, which is charged 1 dr. extra irrespective of length; and (5) telegrams which are certified or confirmed to the sender. The first two classes are very much used, and the latter very seldom.

There are 4 central telephone stations and 2 sub-stations at present established. The central offices are at Athens, opened in 1898, and having 707 subscribers up to the end of 1911; the Piræus, opened in 1899, having 254 subscribers up to the end of last year; Patras, opened in 1907, with 225 subscribers to the same date; and Corfu, opened in 1908, having 32 subscribers up to the end of 1911. The 2 sub-stations are at Kephissia, which has 40 subscribers, and New Phaleron, with 15.

Between Athens and the Piræus there are twenty telephone lines. The sub-station at Kephissia is linked up with Athens, and that at New Phaleron with the Piræus. Only the Athens Central Exchange maintains a permanent service; all of the others are available from 8 a.m. to midnight. At these last-named stations there are always on duty responsible attendants charged with the duty of answering special calls, such as those of the police, for instance. In the Athens Central Exchange female operators are employed only between 8 a.m. and 11 p.m.; the night service, from 11 p.m. until 8 a.m., is carried on by male operators, who are usually skilled telegraphists also.

Each Central Exchange possesses a director, who is attended by a deputy and several superintendents;

the number depends upon the importance of the station. This personnel is independent of the Telegraphic Department.

Athens employs in the department 33 female telephone operators, 4 superintendents, 1 director, and 1 sub-director. All the operators, who must hold diplomas, enter as apprentices without payment for the first two months; then they commence with a salary of 50 dr. (£2) per month. When they have qualified as telephonists, their monthly pay rises 15 dr. a month for the next two years, and by gradual increases thereafter until the sum amounts to the maximum, which is between 95 and 110 dr. per month. The working hours, however, are limited to four hours daily.

The women operators have the right to one month's vacation in each year, but their duties have, until recently, continued on Sundays the same as upon weekdays. From the 1st of May of this year (1912), however, a new table of holidays was introduced by Mr. C. Weigle, engineer in the General Direction Department of Posts and Telegraphs at Athens, which gives to two of the female operators out of the whole staff one Sunday free in rotation.

Except the twenty lines connecting Athens with the Piræus, there is but one inter-suburban telephone line in Greece. This connects the capital with the city of Patras, the second most important port in the kingdom. The length of the line is 240 kilometres. It is purely for official business, and is not connected with the central stations, although by means of private communication it can be used by privileged callers, such as high officials in Government offices, the instruments being placed in the rooms of the individuals entitled to use the line. On the other hand, the public may have a message telephoned over this line by applying to any one of the privileged users, the charge being 20 lepta (2d.) for each message; but since it is frequently necessary to wait for two hours before such

message can be sent, the public do not trouble the line very much. The Government, on the other hand, use the line continuously, especially between Athens and Patras, but less often between Patras and Athens.

Telephone subscribers, having paid their annual fee of 150 dr. (£6), can use the line as often and for as long a time as they please in the city district. For the privilege of communicating outside, for instance to the Piræus, a further 100 dr. (say, £4) or a full 250 dr. (£10) must be paid; to communicate with Kephissia a further 50 dr. (or £2), making a total of 300 dr. (£12) in all. One commercial house which has installed a telephone at a branch has to pay an annual fee of 400 dr., or, say, £16. Any subscriber requiring more than one instrument upon a single installation is charged at the rate of 50 dr. (£2) for each additional apparatus. Cafés, hotels, and public buildings pay double the usual amount of subscription; they are forbidden to demand any fee from the public using their instruments, and should they be detected in so doing, their connection is severed. Subscribers may install their own apparatus if they choose; but in this case they must pay a supplemental charge of 90 dr. per instrument. Subscriptions are payable quarterly or annually, the latter being more general.

The inland telegraphs of the kingdom alone are controlled by the Government—that is to say, by the responsible department under the Ministry of the Interior. All other lines are in the hands of the Eastern Telegraph Company, Limited. The only international wire controlled by the State is the land line between Larissa and Salonica (Turkey). The submarine cables connecting the mainland of Greece with the islands are also the property of the Eastern Telegraph Company, which leases them to the Government. These latter employ the Morse system as well as upon the inland wires. For some little time, however, Mr. Brander,

who is connected with the Telegraphic Department at Athens, has been instructing the operators in the Hughes system, which is now being used between Athens and the Piræus. There is but one telegraph office in Athens, and all dispatches must be sent from this.

The network of telegraph wires is supplemented by the provision for the outlying districts of single-wire telephones. These permit of the collection and dispatch, by means of phonogrammes, of the full messages, for either telegraphic or cable transmission. The system works quite smoothly, and the messages are handled with commendable celerity, and, considering the different languages employed—Greek, French, and a good deal of English—singularly few errors are committed by the employees.

All the male employees in both the postal, telegraph, and telephone departments must pass a preliminary examination. The only females employed are those in the telephone section. The following are the grades through which the clerks must pass: (1) Unpaid apprentices, serving two months in the telegraph and one month in the postal departments, one year in the School for Telegraphists; (2) second-class assistants: payment, 90 dr. monthly, with an increase of 10 dr. per month after six months' service; (3) first-class assistants: payment, 120 dr. per month, with an increase of 20 dr. after three years' service; (4) second-class telegraphists: payment, 190 dr. per month, with an increase of 30 dr. per month after eight years' service; (5) first-class telegraphists: payment, 240 dr. per month, with an increase of 50 dr. per month after ten years' service; (6) director, or inspector of the second class: payment, 320 dr. per month; (7) general director or inspector of the first class: payment, 400 dr. per month. Thus it will be seen that the highest paid post attainable is £16 per month—£192 per annum. All employees are entitled

to a small retiring pension, themselves contributing 1 per cent. and the Government 8 per cent., making 9 per cent. of their pay. The age for retirement is fixed according to the particular class in which the employees are serving.

For 1910, the profits said to be earned upon posts, telegraphs, and telephones amounted to the sum of £8,000, according to the Government returns; but there is reason to believe that when certain heavy payments had been allowed for (payments encashed), on account of the Eastern Telegraph Company, and amounting to £20,000, the above "surplus" would be turned into a deficit. For the past year (1911) the total revenue from these three departments was anticipated to produce £230,220 as against £215,012 for the year 1910.

During 1911 the number of postal orders issued for countries outside of the kingdom amounted to 39,029, representing a value of 2,806,685 dr., as against 35,619 issued in 1910, having a value of 2,387,009 dr. On the other hand, the number of foreign money orders arriving in the country amounted to a value of 23,637,028 dr. against 23,993,337 dr.

The best example of British activity in Greece, an activity which one would like to see more closely imitated, is afforded by the Eastern Telegraph Company, Limited, which owns an extensive network of cables throughout the Levant, connecting the kingdom with the outside world in all directions. All the more valuable is this provision in view of the isolation of Greece from any European railway communication, since the opposition of the Turkish Government renders the linking-up of the existing lines at present impossible of realisation.

Communication between the different cable centres and the interior of the country is completed by aerial lines belonging to the Greek Government.

The Company's cables are worked on the latest

improved systems, and are, for the most part, what is technically termed "duplexed," by which means upon a single cable transmission is effected simultaneously from both ends with perfect facility. The systems mostly adopted are improvements upon the late Lord Kelvin's (Sir William Thompson's) ingenious syphon recorder, which invention completely overcame the difficulties of long-distance telegraphy.

Muirhead's automatic systems have also contributed vastly to secure both accuracy and high speed in the transmission of the immense amount of traffic which the Eastern Telegraph Company has to handle, and a speed of from 300 to 400 letters per minute is at present easily obtainable.

The maintenance of the costly cables has also to be provided for, or no doubt interruptions arising from different causes would take place, instances being reported of cables giving way from time to time through the agency of earthquakes and landslips, particularly in the Gulf of Corinth.

For this purpose specially equipped cable-repairing boats are at work, the company owning a complete fleet, which is constantly employed in different parts of the world.

The company seems particularly well served abroad, and especially in Greece, where its superintendents are in all cases men of great social worth and sound education. The Company has stations or agencies at Athens, Syra (Cyclades), Corfu, Corinth, Patras, Piræus, and Zante. At the last named, which is the most important of all the Greek stations owing to the fact that all cables from Europe must proceed via Zante, the representative is Mr. Edward Bonavia, who is at the same time H.B.M.'s Vice-Consul. Upon the occasion of the last earthquake on the island (January and February, 1912) much damage was caused to the house in which Mr. Bonavia resides, and which is situated above the Eastern Telegraph Company's transmitting and re-

ceiving station; but, owing to Mr. Bonavia's skilful management and close supervision, no delays in the business of the office ensued; and, indeed, the station rendered invaluable aid to the island by directing the attention of the world to the calamity, and thus securing timely assistance. The local staff are very proficient, and among them are found some exceptionally capable operators.

ATHENS : THE UNIVERSITY, BUILT IN 1837.

Showing the handsome Ionic portico and marble statues (left and right) of Rhigas the poet and the Patriarch Gregory. The centre statue represents Gladstone.

(See p. 160.)

CHAPTER XIII

Education — Modern system — Schools—Commercial training — Free school State support—Primary schools—The universities—Fees—Tuition—Degrees—Professors—André Andréadès—Student riots—Greek pronunciation.

Emigration—Serious conditions—Increased figures and lamentable results—Remittances to homeland—Diseases contracted abroad—Difficulties faced—Disappointments occasioned—Greek Consul in the United States condemns movement.

Religion—Churches—Clergy—Greek Church abroad—Mohammedans — Jews — French Catholic archbishop — Charitable bequests to churches, &c.—Superstition—Some sad cases.

FROM the earliest days of Greek culture it has been a matter of pride with the Hellenic race to foster the cause of public education; it is still to-day a subject upon which the modern Greeks enter with no less enthusiasm or enterprise. Those who have followed the trend of Hellenic history during the past century must have been impressed with the fidelity with which the people have adhered to their principle of spreading education; even during the dark days of their War of Independence and the subsequent financial difficulties which were the direct consequence, the cause of public instruction was never forsaken nor yet even partially neglected.

The Ministry of Public Instruction, which has also charge of all religious matters, recognises three separate clauses of public education, namely, the primary or communal schools, the Hellenic or intermediary schools, and the superior or Gymnasia schools.

Primary instruction is practically free, the only payment necessary being a nominal fee for a diploma which is granted at the end of the course. There are also some equally nominal contributions due, amounting to 4 dr. (3s. 4d.) per annum for the intermediary course, 25 dr. (£1) per annum for the secondary course, and 100 dr. (£4) for the superior course, such payments being made in the form of Government stamps which bear a face value of 2, 5, 10, 15, 50, and 100 dr.

The educational system in vogue in Greece differs from that in some countries principally in regard to the courses of instruction, which form one single series, while in France, for example, it is usual to pursue one's studies either at the Lycée or at the primary school in order to pass therefrom into one or another of the secondary schools. As a fact, the Greek system of education is the same as the German in organisation, being established upon that principle by the eminent scholar and great patriot George Gennadius.

Primary schools are found in practically every village throughout the kingdom, each separate district being controlled by a competent inspector. From the largest normal school at Athens are recruited the body of schoolmasters, who are afterwards appointed to their various posts. To-day there are to be found in Greece 1,414 primary schools for boys, of which 1,197 are first-class, 134 second-class, 29 third-class, and 54 fourth-class. In addition, there are 400 schools for girls, of which 300 are first-class, 40 second-class, 27 third-class, and 33 fourth-class. Besides these, in the villages there are 884 rural schools for the elementary instruction of little children of both sexes. The principal institution is the Arsakeion, founded from the proceeds of a legacy left by Arsakis, whose name the institution bears. It is from this establishment that the female school-teachers employed by the Government are recruited. The well-known Athenian literary Society of Parnassus has established a number of even-

ing schools, where free education is given to many hundreds of youths and boys who earn their livelihood during the day.

To carry out the course of public instruction there are engaged 1,878 male teachers and 610 female teachers, as well as 768 masters for the rural infant schools; among the latter are 10 belonging to a race and creed different from that of the Greeks, and who are supposed to instruct their pupils in the tenets of the Mohammedan, Jewish, and Catholic religions in accordance with the absolute freedom in matters of religion in Greece, and under the provisions of the existing law.

Beyond the above there exists the Polytechnic School, an institution which is composed of two distinct establishments, one being devoted to the study of the arts and sciences, and whence emanate many of the able engineers and mechanics of whom modern Greece can boast, and the other to the fine arts, comprising within the curriculum such subjects as drawing, sculpture, engraving, and decorating.

A School of Commerce in Athens, and a number of foreign educational institutes established in the capital, help to swell the list of such establishments to an altogether extraordinary total. Outside of the kingdom there are 78 Greek schools in Constantinople alone, which engage the services of 597 professors and claim 16,313 students. Other similar establishments to a very considerable number exist in other parts of the Ottoman Empire and in the Balkan States. These schools receive no sort of financial assistance from the Government of Greece, being entirely maintained by the voluntary subscriptions of liberal Hellenes living in the Ottoman Empire or elsewhere, and from the incomes derived from different charitable bequests.

In spite of the heavy charges laid upon the resources of the State in the way of educational subsidies, salaries, new buildings, administration, &c., the tendency of the

Greeks is to build still more schools and to provide yet further educational facilities. The blessing of free education is thoroughly appreciated by the Greeks, for the usual scholastic fees, from the payment of which they are relieved, would undoubtedly prove a great burden upon the people were any enforced. From the Government point of view a considerable amount of time is also saved in regard to the collection of school and college fees from so widely scattered a population as that of Greece.

The University at Athens counts many distinguished scholars who are also well known abroad. Among them may be mentioned Professors Hadjidakis, Lambros, Politis, Cavadias, Tsountas, &c., while Professor Menardos, a no less celebrated savant, is, at the same time, Professor of Literature and Lecturer at Oxford. Most of the professors of the Athenian University have taken their degrees or have completed their studies abroad—that is to say, in either England, Germany, or France. Among the several distinguished men who have studied in this country is Professor André Andréadès, probably one of the most able public lecturers in Greece. He comes from an old Cretan family established in Corfu. Professor Andréadès holds the chair of Financial Science at the University of Athens, where his lectures are fully attended, while he is also a corresponding member of the Royal Economic Society and Dean of the Faculty of Law. Professor Andréadès, who speaks and writes English with great accuracy and fluency, has much sympathy for this country, where he possesses many friends. He is a Greek to the backbone, being devoted heart and soul to the classic land of his birth, and as genuinely proud of its glorious past as he is hopeful of its brilliant future. His many contributions to English literature, notably his scholarly reviews which have appeared in the *Economic Journal*, have caused Professor Andréadès to be accepted as an authority upon

this side. His thoughtful and critical work upon the "Bank of England," as well as some other publications from his pen, including "Lord Salisbury and the Eastern Question," "Direct Taxation in Greece and its Evolution," "The Public Debt of Greece," "Greece and Macedonia," "Le Régime Fiscal des Spiritueux en Grèce," &c., have made equally good impressions, proving the author to be possessed of a thoroughly sound knowledge of economic subjects. Professor André Andréadès, to whom I am indebted for the Preface to this book, is an LL.D. of Paris.

The most serious and at the same time the most perplexing question which Greece has to face at present is that of emigration, a process of exhaustion which is rapidly draining the country of the flower of its manhood—the life-blood of the rural districts. In some countries, such as England, the growth of the population makes it impossible for all native-born men to find a means of livelihood at home, and surplus members of society must seek employment abroad; but while Greece is undoubtedly a vigorous State, she is urgently in need of every single able-bodied man who can be pressed into the service of her agricultural and mineral production.

How very serious is the continuous and unchecked departure of her sons for abroad may be seen from a glance at the figures—incomplete as I believe them to be—of the emigration which has taken place during the past ten years to the United States of America alone, independently of the many other parts of the world which have received their full share of Greek immigrants. From the Washington Statistical Department the number of Greek subjects landing in North America were as follows: 1900, 3,773; 1902, 8,115; 1904, 12,625; 1906, 23,127; 1908, 28,808; 1910, 39,135; 1911, 37,021. When the figures for the full year of 1912 are published it will be found that the total considerably exceeds 40,000.

Some districts, such as Kalamata, Trikkala, Agrinion, &c., are almost bare of labour, and wages are higher to-day as a consequence than they have been in the history of the country. Instead of the 2 or 3 dr. which used to be paid to an agricultural labourer, he can scarcely be attracted for 4 or 5 dr. On the other hand, the same man in North America receives almost three times the amount, namely, $2 or, say, 9–10 dr. daily. The women but seldom accompany their menfolk abroad, the proportion being 1½ per cent. only. Some islanders—the Corfiotes, for instance—rarely emigrate, preferring to live upon little at home than to enrich themselves abroad. The Cephalonians, the Cretans, and the Ithacans are the most prone to leaving their islands, and but few of them ever return. When they do it is generally to serve their military term, and to depart thereafter for ever.

While this drainage is particularly noticeable in the provinces of Thessaly, Arcadia, and perhaps in some of the Ionian Islands, Crete also shows an enormous annual exodus. It is estimated officially that between 1900 and 1909 over 10,000 left the island. Of these 7,000 were Greeks and 3,000 Ottomans. Most of these emigrants were young men between twenty and thirty years of age, who form the most energetic of the population. One can understand the outflow from Crete to some extent, owing to the few prospects of advancement and the general restlessness upon the island; but it is more difficult to appreciate the desire to leave other parts of Greece, where abundant reward awaits the agriculturist, and where the conditions of living should be infinitely more agreeable to the native-born Hellene than the stuffy and overcrowded purlieus of most North American cities, where they muster and remain, almost as the Russians and Poles cluster together in the East End of London.

There can be no question, however, that a spirit of reflection has at length manifested itself among

the great body of emigrants—both actual and prospective—and in this fact may possibly be found a solution of the perplexing problem to which reference has already been made. Although, doubtless, large sums of money are earned and remitted to Greece by the emigrants living in North America, it is maintained that, on the whole, they take out of the country more money than they ever send back to it. The United States prove to the majority of Greeks who go there an abode of suffering and privation. Originally intending to perform only congenial work, upon arriving in their new "homeland" these unfortunates are compelled by necessity to toil at all kinds of occupations like veritable galley-slaves, undertaking menial labour which would be refused by Indians of the lowest type.

The great majority of these Greek emigrants soon become disenchanted, and many of them return embittered in spirit, impoverished in pocket, and ruined in constitution, having been obliged to live in New York, Chicago, and other seething cities under conditions more comfortless and less sanitary than in their own country, where at least the atmosphere which they breathe is pure, the climate is congenial, and there is plenty of room to move about.

It is averred by the Greek Consul-General at New York (M. Botassis) that there are to-day 80,000 Greeks in the wretched condition which I have described. He blames the lying and covetous emigration agents for this state of affairs, and he suggests that the Greek Government should take steps to prevent them from pursuing further their nefarious traffic in human bodies and human souls.

It seems that some among the Greek emigrants in the United States are actually starving. M. Botassis, who should certainly know more of this subject than any one else, declared as recently as last May (1912) that the emigrants from Greece are not only going

hungry but insufficiently clad, shivering from the cold in the severe North American winters, while those who manage to reach Greece after their bitter experiences are eaten up by consumption, and frequently communicate the disease to their children and relations. It is considered by some critics that M. Botassi's figures, like his opinions, are somewhat exaggerated.

The vast proportions to which emigration from Greece has attained may, to a great extent, be attributed to the Greeks' adventurous character, a quality which they have, no doubt, inherited from Ulysses. Their roving spirit induces them to journey to far-distant lands in search of El Dorado ; for every Greek dreams of becoming rich either in America or elsewhere, and he is usually willing to submit to any amount of physical hardship and privation in order to realise his ideal.

There is no question but that very large sums of money have been remitted during many years past to the homeland by emigrant Greeks, and, indeed, through this channel flows a considerable portion of the revenue which the country possesses. In 1903 it was ascertained by the Valaoritis Inquiry that £80,000 was being sent back annually to Greece from the United States by resident Greeks. To-day the annual inflow from the same source may be estimated at fully double that amount. Professor André Andréadès has made a particularly close study of this question, and to him I am indebted for the statements made, the Professor founding his judgment, firstly, upon the greatly increased number of emigrants, each of whom sends home money in a greater or less degree, and secondly, upon the known increase in postal remittances.

The whole of the State Church is under, as already pointed out (see "Ministry"), the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Ecclesiastical Affairs and Public Instruction, and the organisation of control consists of : the Holy Synod, established by the law of July 9, 1852, and

which has a membership of a permanent President (who is the Metropolitan of Athens), the King's Proctor, and three members; the Council of the Holy Synod, consisting of four Bishops (of Cephalonia, Elis, Messenia, and of Montinée and Cynourie), other bishops taking their place in rotation; and the Archimandrite with two secretaries and two registrars.

The bishoprics and bishops are distributed over twenty-six different departments and are as follows:—

Attica: The Metropolitan of Athens, with his chief of holy office, advocate, archdeacon, chaplain, and chief clerk.

Bœotia (embracing the dioceses of Thebes and Livadia), residence at Livadia; Phthiotis, diocese of Phthiotis, with residence at Lamia; Phocis, diocese of Phocis, with residence at Amphissa; Ætolia and Acarnania,* diocese of Acarnania and Naupaete, with residence at Missolonghi; Evrytania, diocese of Evrytania, with residence at Carpenissi; Arta,* diocese of Arta, and residence at town of same name; Trikkala, diocese of Trikkala and Stafe, with residence at Trikkala; Karditza, diocese of Phanarion and Thessaly, with residence at Karditza.

Larissa, diocese of Larissa, and residence at town of same name; Magnesia, diocese of Démétriade, and residence at Volo; Eubœa, diocese of Chalcis and Corystie, with residence at Chalcis; Argolis, diocese of Argolis, and with residence at Hydra; Corinth, diocese of Corinth and residence at town of same name; Arcadia, diocese of Mantinée and Cyvourie, with residence at Dimitzana.

Achaia, diocese of Patras, with residence at Calavryta; Elis, diocese of Elis, with residence at Pyrgos; Triphylie, diocese of Olympia, with residence at Kyparissia; Messenia, diocese of Messenia, and with residence at Kalamata; Laconia, diocese of Ghythium and Œtylum, with residence at Cérigo; Lacedæmon,

NOTE.—The names marked with an asterisk are those of archbishops.

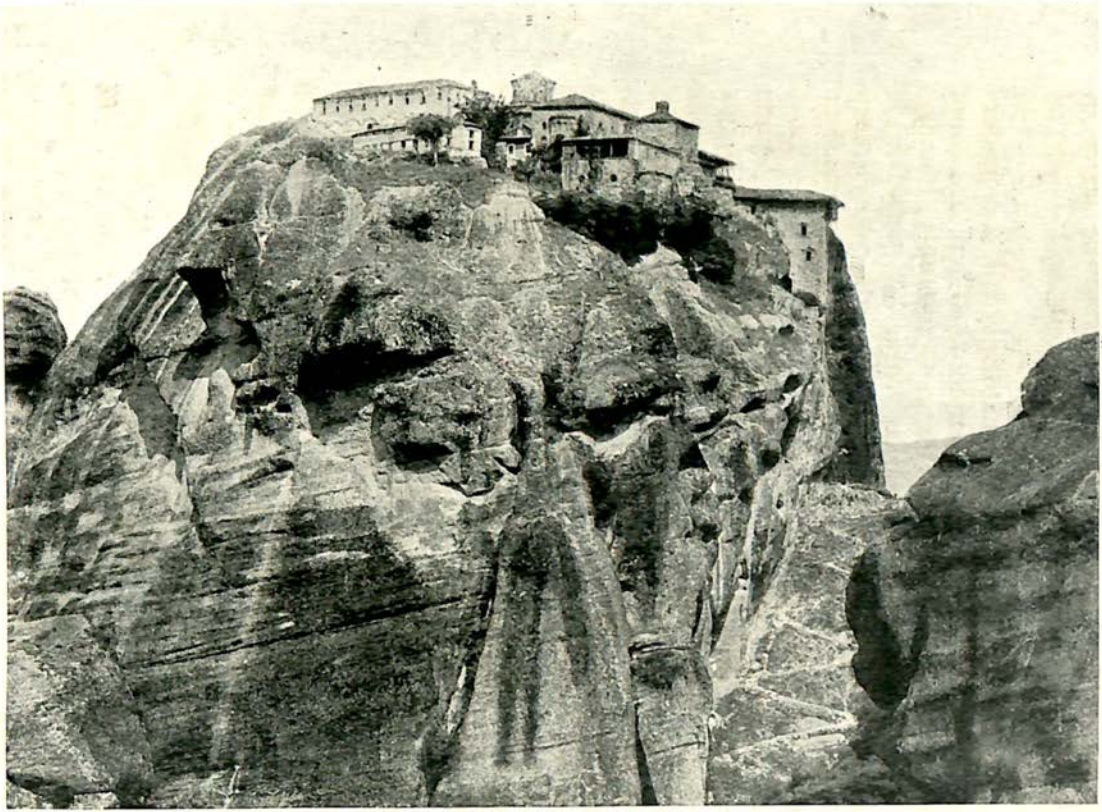
diocese of Lacedæmon, and residence at Sparta ; Corfu, diocese of Corfu, and residence at town of same name ; Cephalonia, diocese of Cephalonia, and residence at Argostoli ; Levcas, diocese of Levcas, and residence at town of same name ; Zante, diocese of Zante and residence at town of same name ; Cyclades, diocese of Syra, Tinos, and Andros, with residence at Naxos.

In addition to these prelates there are twenty preachers (*prédicateurs*), who rank next to the bishops in importance.

The existing 24 monasteries, containing some 180 monks, and the 7 convents with about 10 nuns, are also under the Ministry of Ecclesiastical Affairs, as are a number of seminaries scattered throughout the country.

There are fewer Jews in Greece than in any European country, and possibly this may be accounted for by the fact that the Greeks themselves are such keen traders that the Hebrews have little or no chance of competition. The existing relations are much about the same as those between Jews and Scotsmen. Nevertheless where the Israelites are found living in any numbers they are usually respected as citizens and esteemed for their pure family life and sincere religious practices. They take little or no part in politics, but exercise much quiet charity among themselves and their neighbours, who need not be co-religionists to receive their bounty.

Jews were settled in Greece when Benjamin of Tudela visited this country in the twelfth century. At Sparta there exist many inscriptions in Hebrew and some ancient Jewish burial-grounds. In Athens there is a small but thriving Jewish community, with its handsome synagogue ; another, considerably larger and more influential, exists at Corfu. In the other Ionian Islands of Cephalonia and Zante there are found several members of the oldest religion in the world, as well as in Chalcis—probably a remnant of the once large colony of Israelites which lived there in the time of the



KALAMBAKA : ONE OF THE SEVERAL REMARKABLE MONASTERIES OF METÉORA.
Founded in the Fourteenth Century upon the summits of pillar-like rocks rising precipitously from the Valley.
(See p. 205.)

Venetians—at Volo, and at some few other parts of the kingdom. A good many young Jews are serving in the army, and they are invariably found to be strict in observing the tenets of their ancient and beautiful faith.

Of Mohammedans there are naturally still a considerable number resident in the kingdom. There are three spiritual heads of the Mussulman Community, namely, at Larissa, at Karditza, and at Volo. A considerable number of mosques are to be found all over Greece but none call for much description from a structural or historical point of view.

Early in March, 1912, a Roman Catholic Archbishop arrived in Athens in the place of the late Monsignor Delenda, who died last year. The Rev. P. Louis Petit is a member of the Augustins of the Assumption, of which brotherhood he held the position of Assistant-General. He is a Savoyard by birth, but he has travelled and lived in the East for some twenty years and more. The new Archbishop is a good Greek scholar. This is the first time that the Holy See has sent a Frenchman to Greece as head of the Catholic Church, although the custom has been to appoint a foreigner in preference to a Greek, a circumstance which has given some offence in Hellenic religious circles.

The Catholic Archbishop has no official status in Greece and his position is a delicate one. He must exercise great care not to meddle in politics, rather a difficult thing for a Catholic priest to subscribe to; and while he is regarded with respect by the Greek Church authorities, he is not permitted to control in any way the religious rites of the country. There are probably not more than 40,000 Roman Catholics in the kingdom. The archbishopric has existed since 1872, and during that period the relations between the heads of the Orthodox and the Roman Catholics have not always been of the best. With the advent of the new prelate,

however, a much better condition and understanding are likely to be introduced and maintained.

In the United States the Greeks are not always able to get along with the hundred and one other communities to be found living there, and in February of 1909 a serious anti-Greek outbreak occurred at Omaha; unfortunately, anti-racial and discreditable affairs of this kind are confined to no particular country, for we have witnessed them in our own many times, and may unhappily do so again.

Numerous Greek colonies exist and flourish in England. Besides those in London, communities are to be found in Manchester, Liverpool, Cardiff, and elsewhere, and it may be said that as a general rule the members prove themselves to be admirable citizens, clever and resourceful as merchants, kindly and hospitable as social adjuncts, generous and sympathetic as co-religionists and compatriots towards those of their community less fortunately situated than themselves.

The Greeks in London and Manchester would appear to have come originally from all parts of the Hellenic world, from Peloponnesus, Chios, the Ionian Islands, Cyprus, Asia Minor, Constantinople, Macedonia, and other Greek centres. Greek chapels and handsome churches may be found wherever the communities exist, the first church erected in Manchester, I believe, being in 1834. Greeks came to live in London as far back as 1817, and many accessions to their ranks took place as a consequence of the war of 1821. Such names as the Ralli Brothers, the Rodocanachis, Gennadius, Stavridi, Burlumi, Strangopoulo, &c., are well known, and wherever known are highly esteemed among us to-day.

Towards the latter end of 1909 M. Marinos Corgialegno sent to the King of Greece the sum of £20,000 to be expended—as he put it—"in furtherance of the task of reform." M. Markos Dragoumis, who died

in the month of March, 1909, was another generous contributor towards all national enterprises, although personally he took no part whatever in political affairs. M. Markos Dragoumis was a brother of M. Stephanos Dragoumis, the brilliant statesman and former Prime Minister, and who is also a very liberal donor to Greek social enterprises.

M. Dimetrios Békelas, who died in July, 1908, was not only a liberal and ardent supporter of Greek national interests, but was distinguished as a great *littérateur*. He was a particularly warm friend of the Marquis of Bute, who translated several of his works into English, notably his "La Grèce Byzantine et Moderne."

The benefactions of M. George Averoff, who died in April, 1908, attracted the attention of the whole world. He made his immense fortune in Egypt, but in spite of his wealth he adopted the most careful and abstemious form of existence. At his death he bequeathed £160,000 for the endowment of schools at Alexandria, £160,000 for the construction of a Cadet Training Ship, £120,000 for the restoration in marble of the ancient Stadium, £72,000 for the completion of the Polytechnic Schools, £52,000 for the construction of the Military Academy, £80,000 for the endowment of the schools at Metzovo (Epirus), and numerous other bequests, in addition to the gift of a sum of £160,000 towards the cost of the cruiser which has since been built and named after him.

The banker M. Syngros endowed numerous charities and charitable institutions with his enormous wealth, including a gift of 2,000,000 dr. (£80,000) to found an orphan asylum for boys at Athens, and a similar amount for an asylum for girls.

Some superstition still prevails among the peasantry, but deplorable as this may be from a moral point of view, it is no worse than the spurious faith professed and preached by the Christian Scientists and the other

members of their school. The devil is held responsible for many of the maladies with which these people are afflicted, and recourse is had to the priest more often than the doctor. While I was in Corfu I witnessed an instance of this. An unfortunate young woman, who had been deserted by her husband a few months after marriage, had become mad. For over one month daily prayers had been held over her by the local priest, who endeavoured to exorcise the demon by fervent prayer and supplication. Are not special prayers offered up in Anglican churches for or against rain?

Innumerable plants and herbs are taken internally and applied externally as specifics against the evil eye, and to avert the effects of supernatural agency. Certain churches and chapels are regarded as efficacious in curing diseases, and as exercising miraculous powers against accidents. Two or three of these buildings are to be found in Athens itself, and they are much frequented by credulous worshippers, who are, however, by no means confined to the ignorant classes of the community.

CHAPTER XIV.

Literature—Language question—The "Puristic" and "Popular" styles—Claims of contestants—Comments of British authorities—Are the Greeks descendants of ancient races?—Ethnologists' differences.

Hellenic societies—Royal interest—Progress Women's Exchange—Society of Friends—School of Embroideries—Refugees' Asylum—International Congress of Orientalists—Greek Folklore Society—Common diseases—Greek heroism.

IF one excepts the small but important body of ethnologists and dialecticians who love to argue and to quarrel over the origin and use of ancient languages, one would have thought that the great language question, which had for so long divided certain *litterati*, possessed but little personal interest for us, no more, indeed, than the abstract principles of Home Rule for Ireland would have for the modern Greeks.

Nevertheless, it has much attraction for non-Greeks, while it forms for the Greeks themselves a momentous subject, since it is a legacy from ancient times. It first began to take definite shape when Athens lost her political predominance; and the Attic language, from being paramount all over the Greek world, began to fall into decay in its spoken form. In its place there arose another tongue, the living language of the scattered Greek communities after the classic language had been relegated to the domain of literature. In the centuries which have elapsed since the Gospels were written in the demotic tongue, the gap between the languages, instead of lessening, has become widened.

The controversy which has since arisen is distracting for some Greeks and most perplexing for the foreigner; the latter can hardly with decorum express any decided opinion upon the merits of the discussion, and I only propose to record the fact that the claims of both contestants—the advocates of the "puristic" and the supporters of the "popular" or "vulgar" languages—have been fully explained to me without having enabled me to form any very definite predilection for either. To enter into debate upon the matter with a Greek is to invite disaster; the worthy Hellenes cannot even discuss the subject among themselves without losing their temper, and even, upon occasions, coming to blows, unmindful of the poet's rhapsody—

> "And friendly free discussion calling forth
> From the fair jewel Truth its latent say."

At one period, strangely enough, the English press displayed an extraordinary amount of interest in the Greek language question, and numerous controversial articles were printed upon the subject. This was upon the occasion of the Gospel Riots in Athens in the month of November, 1901, and which, arising out of the students' objection to the translation of the New Testament into a base language, led to the resignation of the Theotokes Ministry.

In the *Times*, November, 1901, some distinguished writers declared for and against the matter, while the *Manchester Guardian* (which printed an enlightening communication from M. John Gennadius), the *Spectator*, the *Morning Leader*, the *Liverpool Daily Post*, the *Pilot*, *Literature*, the *Sind Gazette*, the *Bombay Gazette*, the *Englishman*, and the *Pioneer*, among the Anglo-Indian Press, carried on the controversy for several weeks. France and Germany were likewise much interested, since they not only possess a literature devoted to it, but have special Chairs for Spoken Modern Greek in their Universities. As I have indi-

cated, this linguistic question is of importance to some enthusiasts in Greece, and unfortunately it remains unsettled up to the present time.

It is during the twelfth century that compositions in the vernacular tongue are first met with. Such are the poems of the monk called Ptochoprodromus which were addressed to the Emperor Comnenus. The literary language of this time was still the same which had been used throughout the Byzantine period—the common dialect of the Macedonian Greeks as it had been transmitted with various modifications by the later Greek writers and the Fathers of the Church. Some writers, like Michael Psellus and Eustathius of Thessalonica, although men of undoubted ability, are considered to have written in a stilted and pedantic style; nevertheless, the ancient literature has been, and will, no doubt, continue to be indispensable as the basis of the Greek language at large.

The same animated disputes have taken place regarding the descent of the modern Greeks as have been waged concerning their literature and language. The inaccurate Fallmerayer declares that the real Greek race is extinct; the far greater Carl Hopf refutes this statement upon the ground that Fallmerayer has consulted and accepted false documents. The late Sir Richard Jebb maintained that the Greek language, like the Greeks themselves, had an unbroken descent from prehistoric times. Professor Mahaffy considers that the language of to-day is essentially that of Plato; Sir Rennell Rodd opposes the theory of artificial reintroduction of the tongue from Byzantium; Mr. D. G. Hogarth admits that a surviving strain may be found in the modern Hellene, although considerably mixed in the blood of the Slav, the Vlach, and the Albanian. But Hogarth was always anti-Greek, and absurdly admired the Turks and all their abominations.

One cannot hurt a modern Greek more surely than by telling him that he is not a descendant of the ancient

Hellenic race; but no Englishman would feel particularly offended by learning that he bears no resemblance to nor connection with the ancient Briton. Mr. D. G. Hogarth, whom I have already quoted, points out in his excellent book "The Near East," that "these great and noble qualities which the modern Greek has displayed so conspicuously this century past belong to him, to my thinking, in spite, not because, of his possessing a little old Hellenic blood. . . . The stock that was *græcubus* even in the Augustan Age has been passing down the road of racial decay these two thousand years, to be combined now in Greece with younger and ruder races."

A society exists, known as the Progress Women's Exchange, under the patronage of the Queen of Greece, and which is superintended by the ladies of Athens. The Society has for its object the encouragement of poor girls to maintain themselves by their work, and claims to be the only one offering Grecian specialities and which is entirely independent of any company control. Among the articles which may be purchased from the Progress Women's Exchange are genuine Greek hand-embroideries, lace, peasant bags, painted pictures and postcards, imitations of ancient potteries, fancy boxes and frames, artistic tablecloths, old Grecian lace, curtains, brocades, and lace from Crete and Cyprus. The headquarters of this Society are under the Hotel d'Albion, Constitution Square, Athens.

The Queen has also given her patronage to the Ladies' Association, which sells articles of native manufacture, carpets, curtains, stuffs for upholstering, various kinds of gauze, handkerchiefs, laces, embroideries, and articles of underclothing. The headquarters of the Ladies' Association are at 138, Amalia Avenue, Athens.

In the early months of this year there was formed in Athens a Society of Friends, based upon the same principles as those of the well-known Société des Amis de Paris. It has for its object the beautifying

of modern Athens. Unfortunately, while the ideals of the Association are altogether admirable, it possesses few, if any, resources, and it is hardly likely to have at any time command of sufficient funds to do very much in the way of embellishing the city. But it can assist, with its advice, the erection of suitable buildings and the introduction of artistic decorations, several of the members of the Society being distinguished architects and successful artists.

The Royal School of Embroideries in Athens was formed by a small number of women from Thessaly during the time of the Turco-Greek War of 1897, and owes much of its later success to the interest taken in it by the wife of the British Minister of those days, Sir Edwin Henry Egerton (1892-1903). Lady Egerton, a Russian by birth, was thoroughly popular, and lent her ready assistance to charities and philanthropic projects of all kinds. The King of Greece has provided the building and furniture in which the school is established, while the Queen and the Princess Hélène (the charming and popular Russian wife of Prince Nicholas, the third son of their Majesties) from the first have shown their sympathy with the enterprise.

Les Secours des Refugies (Refugees' Asylum) is a splendidly organised charity for Greek refugees from Roumania, Bulgaria, and Turkey. In these countries, something like 80,000 Greeks have been living for many centuries, and many of them to-day are feeling the effects of religious persecution and political oppression. This asylum for the children is a veritable haven of safety and contentment, the majority of the inmates being orphans. The greatest care is taken of them both physically and morally, work being found for the boys and for some of the girls as soon as they are fitted to leave the asylum.

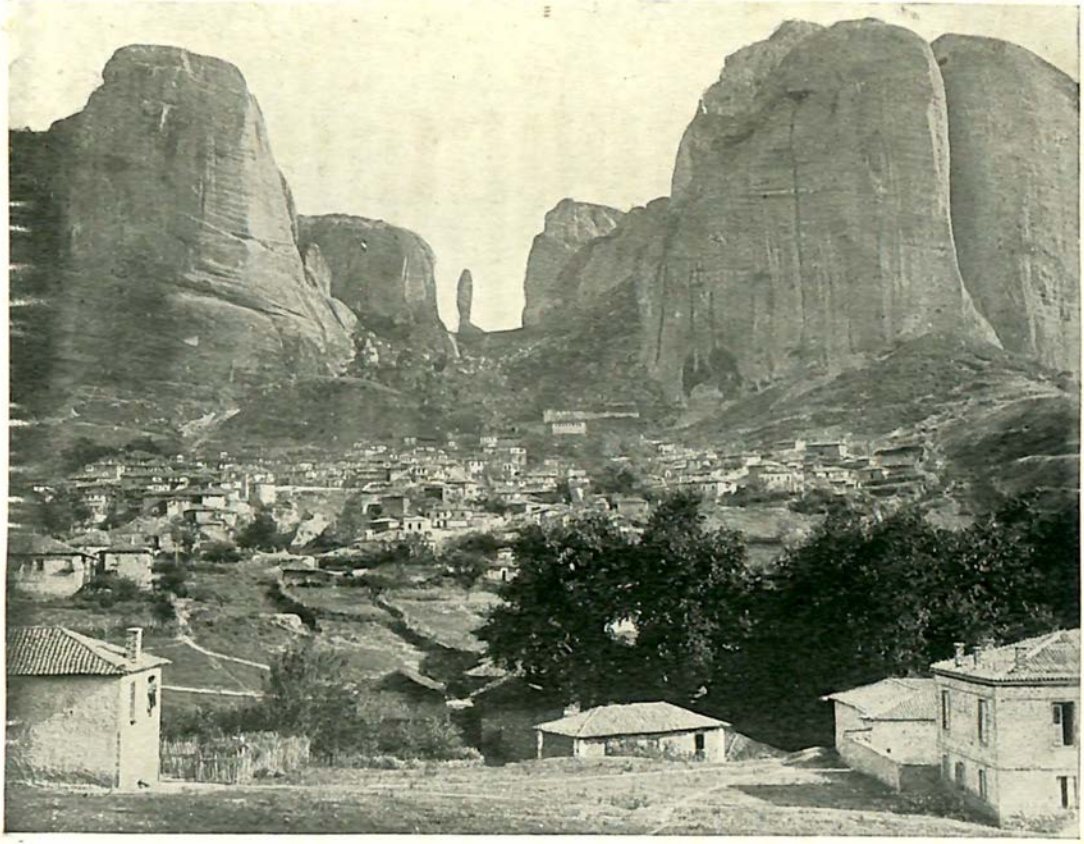
The International Congress of Orientalists met this year (April, 1912) in Athens, when the members were hospitably entertained during the week of their official

visit. Among the names upon the Organisation Committee were to be found those of the King and the Crown Prince, as well as those of many distinguished professors of the University of Athens. It was upon the same occasion that was celebrated in becoming rejoicings the seventy-fifth anniversary of the establishment of the Athens University (1837-1912). A considerable number of Britishers and North Americans are members of this Congress, such as Professor Abercromby, of Edinburgh; Mrs. Arnold, of London; Professor Grahame T. Bayley, of India; Miss Avela Brehm, of Basle; Mr. Holm, of New York; Rev. C. H. W. Johns, of Cambridge; Mr. Max A. Macauliffe, of London; Mr. F. S. Pargiter, of Oxford; Professor W. V. A. Jackson, of Columbia University, New York, &c.

In 1909 was formed the Greek Folklore Society for the study of folklore, ethnology, &c. of the Greeks and other peoples of the Hellenic Peninsula. It is a very flourishing concern, and has already done some very useful and interesting work.

Among the several diseases which are prevalent in Greece intermittent fever is the commonest, the primary cause being the deadly miasma arising from the marshes on the sea-coast and upon the low-lying lands of the interior. So predominant is this malady that in some villages the percentage of cases has been known to reach 100 per cent. of the inhabitants, while the death percentage has been given by some doctors as 20 per cent. and the percentage of fatal cases over the whole of the country at 4–5 per cent.

In the plains some 50 per cent. of the peasant class suffer from some form of fever, and in a greater or less degree. The symptoms manifest themselves by a slight feeling of indisposition, which is followed by acute ague accompanied by languor. The temperature rises to 40° C., and intense headache is experienced, with pains in the eyelids. The first attack is usually



KALAMBAKA: THE ANCIENT BYZANTINE TOWN OF STĀGOÚS.
It commands the once important pass of Æginion.
(See p. 205.)

the most severe, and if care be not taken the fever returns in a more or less violent form every few months. In the case of children, attacks very often prove fatal, but with adults death does not very often ensue. On the other hand, a severe attack may result in a strong man's constitution becoming so much undermined that he is prone to contract other diseases, such as pneumonia, phthisis, &c.

In some parts of the country the disease assumes a more serious form, causing the patient to pass blood, and in its more alarming aspect it resembles the black-water fever of South Africa.

In regard to remedies, the usual expedients followed are the administration of strong doses of quinine, either internally or by hypodermic injections, while strong spirits are also taken as a stimulant and a preventive, and in the convalescent stage the patient is given a tonic containing iron, arsenic, or strychnine.

Intermittent fever is also disseminated by a species of mosquito which breeds in the marshes, and it is only by the draining of these latter and the destruction of the mosquito larvæ that any hopeful results can be looked for. At present few steps are taken by the authorities to overcome the disease in this manner, and beyond the remedies above referred to the inhabitants themselves take no precautions whatever. The Government, however, may at least be commended for having converted the sale of quinine into a monopoly, thereby reducing the price so as to bring it within reach of the poorest inhabitant. Whereas a few years ago thirty grains of quinine cost 60 lepta (6d.), the same quantity can now be purchased for 20 lepta (2d.).

Another malady which has latterly made its appearance in the country, and which is known as meningitis, proves of a very virulent character, the death-rate being 25 per cent. of the patients attacked. Death has been known to ensue within three days of the first symptoms making their appearance. Soldiers appear

to be particularly prone to attack from this distressing disease, which may be assumed to arise from the unsanitary conditions which prevail in some of the barracks. One instance may be cited in the case of Stylis (Stylida), a small seaport on the eastern side of Greece, where some new barracks which had been erected were almost immediately abandoned in consequence of the disease having manifested itself, but not before twenty fatalities had occurred.

Athens itself, the healthiest city in the Hellenic Kingdom, recorded 4 per cent. of deaths due to fever.

From the year 1886 to 1905 the sum of 8,995,000 dr. had been expended on sanitary improvements in Greece.

In addition to fever, phthisis makes great ravages among the Greeks, as may be gleaned from the death statistics which are available. In 1903, for instance, out of a total of 3,330 deaths in Athens, 640, or 19 per cent., were attributable to consumption. Yet there is nothing in the climate to account for the ravages which it makes, and all the doctors admit that the main reason is the extreme carelessness of the people and their obstinate indifference to the many medical warnings which are issued. One admirably organised consumption hospital was established some three years ago by Mme. Schliemann. The lack of other similar hospitals is, however, to be noted, a strange fact, indeed, considering the great wealth which is annually bequeathed to the country by Greeks, dying abroad, for purposes of public benefit. There is also a want of hospitals for infectious diseases, as well as additional insane asylums. A home for incurable complaints already exists, and doubtless others will be forthcoming in time; but the Greeks, although greatly afraid of infectious diseases, are difficult to convince of the necessity of providing themselves with necessary preventive establishments; further, public parks and pleasure-grounds might be allowed to wait until more hospitals have been furnished.

Greek Bravery

The Greeks are as heroic to-day in enduring physical pain as were their Spartan ancestors. In matters of this kind they seem to be entirely without nerves. I have seen a patient brought into hospital suffering from the most ghastly wounds, received in a fight with a man armed with a *machete*—wounds which even caused the surgeon and nurses to turn pale, but which occasioned the victim no other feeling than anger at the fact that his assailant had been less seriously wounded than himself. Many doctors and nurses have testified to the great physical courage shown by the Greek soldiers during the war with the Turks of 1897, many of the most dangerously wounded, upon whom operations had to be performed, refusing to submit to anæsthetics. This arose from bravery and not bravado.

CHAPTER XV

The Press—Large number of publications—A cheap literature—Athens dailies and weeklies—News services—A notable French journal—The *Near East*—The Athens correspondence—Guide of Greece—*Hellenic Herald* in London—A Greek authoress—Parliamentary elections—Dancing and singing to-day—Greek music.

THE Greeks are perhaps the most avid readers of newspapers of any nation in the universe. Practically every man, woman, and child who can read at all peruses a newspaper at least once a day, while those who are unable to avail themselves of this privilege demand of the nearest neighbour a synopsis of the latest news—which means the political intelligence—foreign and home, of the day, since this forms the one and only subject in which the average Greek takes any particular interest.

In Athens alone, small as the population is, no fewer than fourteen or fifteen different papers are produced every day, and still others on Sundays. It is not a question of a particular journal having a particular clientèle, as with us and with most people; the Greek will read anything he can get hold of—and everything. One might suppose, with such omnivorous patrons, the newspapers would derive a roaring trade and enjoy an enormous advertising revenue. But, as a matter of fact, they do neither.

Firstly, the papers are sold at a very low price, five lepta—namely, one halfpenny—mostly; and this sum can pay but little more than the cost of the paper. Secondly, one copy of a journal is passed from hand to hand, and often finds as many as a dozen different

readers. Finally, the art of advertising is little understood as yet, and beyond an occasional display advertisement of some bank, there are few really paying announcements inserted in Greek newspapers.

The Athenian press is represented by a number of high-class and influential journals, comprising some eight morning and three evening papers, among the principal publications being: Morning papers—*Athinai*, *Acropolis*, *Embros*, *Kairoi*, *Neon Asty*, *Patris*, *Chronos*, and *Skrip*. Evening papers—*Esperini*, *Hestia*, and *Ephemeris*.

Many of these journals are printed in two coloured inks (black and red), and are deluged with flaring headlines stretched right across the front page, and in others parts of the journal also. Seldom do these prints consist of more than four pages.

One might imagine, at a first glance, that some highly important or sensational news was to hand, such as a terrible national disaster, a fearful human catastrophe, or a forthcoming change of Government. But it is seldom that any such startling piece of intelligence is published by the press in advance of public knowledge, since the cable and telegraphic service to which these journals subscribe is a restricted one, while L'Agence d'Athènes, a very enterprising news service, keeps all public places well informed of important political events. One wonders what sort of headings the Athens papers would adopt were they to become possessed of a piece of really exclusive information. A font of type large enough has not yet been cast.

For thirty-five years there has appeared twice every week a neat eight-page journal, printed upon paper of a pleasant tint entitled *Le Messager d'Athènes*, a political, financial, literary, and archæological publication in the purest of French. Early in the present year the journal was enlarged as to the size of its pages, and appears now in a dress of new type. It is owned by M. A. Z. Stephanopoli and edited by his clever

daughter, Mlle. Jeanne Stephanopoli. It is an admirable publication in every way, and enjoys both influence and repute throughout the kingdom.

L'Agence d'Athènes is the name of the well-established news-distributing bureau, which circulates a daily service of cable and telegraphic news to all the hotels, Government offices, foreign correspondents, and public resorts. Its telegrams are generally very full, and, what is more to the point, unusually accurate. The secretary-general and editor is M. Alex. C. Perdikides, one of the most accomplished and best-known journalists in Greece. To M. Perdikides is mainly due the great success which has attended the establishment and the operation of this Agency.

One of the most successful of the journals printed in a foreign language, and one which enjoys a large circulation, is *Les Nouvelles de Grèce*, a high-class weekly journal of politics, society, finance, and literature, and was established some years ago. It is since the publication became the property of M. Dem. J. Zographidès, a distinguished *littérateur* and advocate, that the success of the enterprise has become more pronounced. The illustrations are remarkably good, and generally up to date, while the letterpress is of that quality which one would expect from a shrewd critic and keen observer. M. Zographidès has been Consul for some years.

The *Near East*, an admirably edited and handsomely printed London weekly journal, has now become a veritable political power throughout the Mohammedan countries, as well as in Austria-Hungary, Roumania, Servia, Bulgaria, and particularly in Greece. One may see it upon the desks and reading-room tables of all classes of the community—Ministers, bankers, politicians, and prominent merchants. The weekly Athens letter, written by a polished and brilliant Greek diplomatic correspondent, is one of the best features, and attracts widespread attention. Undoubtedly the *Near*

East is very cleverly edited, and proves a distinctly useful organ of reference for all who have any concern with, or who are in any way interested in, the countries of which it treats.

In the months of February and March of 1911 some wags, members of the British community in Athens, brought out a small twelve-page sheet entitled the *British Lyre*. The name was intentionally selected as a moral reproach to the scandal-mongering community which in Athens, as elsewhere in the world where Britishers are found in any numbers, amused themselves by vilifying their neighbours and disseminating ill-natured gossip concerning them. The anonymous editor of this publication—who, by the by, adopted the rather too distinctive pseudonym of "L. Probyn Dighton"—chose as the paper's front-page quotation "Kerowing's" verse: "When women whisper scandal, and say a little bird told them, it's a safe bet it was a lyre bird."

I am told that although the publication went through but two numbers its object was to some extent achieved, and the vile gossip among Britishers concerning one another lessened. It would be too much to have expected a propensity so ingrained in the Englishwoman's nature to have been eradicated altogether.

La Grèce Economique is a weekly journal which has been in existence for the last ten years, and treats, in a critical manner, of all subjects of a financial and commercial character. Its founder was M. G. Catsélidi, who continued to act as editor up to the time of his appointment as Director of the Bank of Athens; and his interest in the publication continued until his death, which took place in the month of September, 1910. From the following month of December *La Grèce Economique* passed under the capable management and ownership of M. J. J. Minettas, a banker and a well-known authority upon all financial and industrial questions. The journal has latterly become more influential in

monetary circles, and its opinions upon Greek Finance are freely quoted in most of the other financial publications of Europe. It is extremely well printed, and appears regularly to appointed date.

An exceptionally valuable publication is "Inglessis' Annual Guide to Greece," a substantial volume printed in Greek, replete with information concerning the commerce and government of the country. Hitherto, it is to be feared, the herculean and unaided labours of M. Nicolas Inglessis, the proprietor and editor, have been rewarded by but little profit, and that the real value of this mammoth work and the enormous difficulties experienced in compiling it have been far from generally recognised.

Undeterred by this, however, M. Inglessis has gallantly persevered with his enterprise, and has now determined to improve it still further, not only by considerably amplifying the already wide-reaching scope of the information afforded, but by publishing separate Greek and French editions, instead of, as hitherto, inserting an abbreviated French supplement within the same covers. It is intended, moreover, to embrace within this Guide such other Near Eastern countries as Turkey, Bulgaria, Servia, Roumania, and Montenegro. The value of such a publication to all European traders must be apparent.

H.M. the King, with his customary kindness and sense of appreciation, has bestowed upon M. Inglessis, in connection with this publication, the Order of the Saviour.

Several years ago there was established in London a monthly journal devoted entirely to the record of Greek events and to the progress of the kingdom from a financial, economic, and political point of view. The *Hellenic Herald* has generally maintained a high level of excellence as a literary journal, as well as a remarkably well-informed news-sheet. It is a subscription journal, and is priced at 10s. per annum; each number

contains a selection of articles treating upon subjects peculiarly interesting to Greeks who live abroad.

During the Parliamentary election-time the whole of Greece is in a noisy ferment, the centre of disturbance and excitement being Athens. For some weeks before polling-day the candidates are engaged day and night interviewing and being interviewed, their experiences being yet more exacting than those of political aspirants of any other country in which I have travelled. In Greece alone have I observed the strong personal, as opposed to the party, element in election campaigns, the majority of the candidates avowedly having no policy, individual or collective—unless it is that of being for or "agin" the Government—and blindly, noisily following the particular political chief.. Even up to the day of polling the candidate has hardly hinted at a programme; but he has his chief as a guiding star, and it is always this chief (an actual or an ex-Minister) whose name is employed as the rallying cry; but very few words about his programme or his past are deemed necessary to secure the support of the candidate's followers.

I came to the conclusion that a great deal of the enthusiasm exhibited was false and exaggerated. Bands of young men and street-boys parade the thoroughfares or collect outside public buildings, acclaiming, or maybe decrying, anything and anybody. To several I addressed the inquiry as to the reason of their excitement, and in most cases the answer was the same, either that "they did not know" or that "it was for M. This or M. That"; but what this same individual had done or had left undone to merit the compliment of being belauded or of being "booed," I could not discover.

The cheering would be continued by separate groups incessantly for hour after hour until late in the night; also on Sundays, as much as upon any other day, to the annoyance of the peacefully inclined, and not a little to the disconcernment of the object of their vociferous attention. To the onlooker it seemed somewhat puerile,

and at the best an enormous waste of human energy. And yet with it all the crowds were guiltless of anything approaching the shameful disorder which distinguished the London celebrants of that never-to-be-forgotten occasion known as "Mafeking night," when Englishmen behaved themselves like beasts and their womenfolk acted but little better than lunatics.

A cheap lithographic portrait of some candidate or political leader is mounted on a pole, which, carried by a proud and noisy adherent, is escorted by an attendant crowd of shrieking, yelling youths and boys—not one among whom possesses a vote to bestow—the procession, illumining its way by red and green Bengal fires, passing up and down the principal thoroughfares incessantly, and the members challenging all and sundry "to tread upon the tails of their coats."

This absurd practice is carried on every night in the week for a full month before the elections are due, leading to some few disturbances but not to much personal violence.

Provincial Parliamentary candidates are compelled to leave the attractions of Athens, which they love, and the luxurious houses which they usually inhabit, for the discomforts and inconveniences of the smaller towns, there to meet and placate their constituents, and to remain their unwilling slave and sympathiser until polling-day comes to relieve and to release them.

In the capital itself would-be members who have remained in town to woo the electorate are hardly more fortunate. Their beautifully furnished residences are overrun with crowds of shabby, clamouring electors or political sycophants, demanding recognition and sometimes encouragement in the way of employment. Even Cabinet Ministers are not exempt, and every hour of their time which can be spared from their official duties must be devoted to electioneering. All other engagements must be abandoned, and any ideas of taking a rest put aside entirely until the fateful day had come and gone.

MISSOLONGHI, SEPARATED FROM THE SEA BY A SHALLOW LAGOON 4½ MILES BROAD.
Formerly a fishing village, it now has 8,500 inhabitants, and is the seat of an Archbishop.
(See p. 200.)

The political trafficker in Greece finds this a rich harvest-time, and he not unnaturally makes the most of his opportunity. Polling-day, however, must appear to the Parliamentary candidate as the day of salvation, even if his efforts prove unavailing and his ambition to write "M.P." after his name remains eventually unsatisfied.

Greece is still a country of dance and song. As one travels through the different provinces one is struck by the propensity of the people for singing and indulging in all kinds of fantastic dances, by no means invariably graceful, it may be added. To the ordinary mind the occasional spectacle presented by a number of khaki-clad soldiers joining hands and dancing solemnly around a lamp-post, or a group of bearded men swinging one another round in a slow and funereal kind of waltz, to the accompaniment of weird music—performed upon a concertina—and sometimes by none at all, has a bizarre effect.

Greek music has many admirers, and its history is, no doubt, worthy of careful study. It is only within recent years, however—in fact, since 1877—that any attempt was made to collect records of ancient Greek music. M. Maurice Emmanuel has, I believe, made a careful and exhaustive investigation into the subject, and has in times past delivered some interesting lectures upon it. The music sung in some of the Greek churches in London is very beautiful, notably that composed by John Chéviaras, a Chiote, and formerly Professor of Greek in Vienna and Precentor of the Greek church in that city.

A Greek authoress of some repute is Mrs. Kenneth Brown, formerly Mlle. Demetra Vaka, educated at Constantinople and considered an authority upon feminine affairs in that country. Mrs. Kenneth Brown is the authoress of "In the Shadow of Islam," as well as of "Some Pages from the Life of Turkish Women," which was published in 1909.

CHAPTER XVI

Railway systems—Length of tracks—Passengers carried—Goods traffics—Receipts and expenditures—Refreshment arrangements—Piræus-Athens-Peloponnesus Railway—Main line and branches—Engineering features—Stations—Tunnels—Bridges—Gauge—Gradients—Rolling-stock—Company's finances—Interest paid on shares—Management.

IT is only within the last fifty years that the kingdom of Greece has been able to boast of any organised railway system whatever; and it must be admitted that the progress of construction has not been commensurate with the general improvement in the country's commerce and industry.

The earliest construction took place in 1869, and from that time until 1892 slow and uncertain progress in railway building took place.

To-day the total length of line amounts to a little over 1,600 kilometres (1,000 miles), and made up as follows, and representing an invested capital of something like 66,500,000 dr. (£2,660,000).

	Kilometres.
Piræus, Athens, and Peloponnesus Railway	754
Hellenic (Larissa) Railway	440
Thessalian Railway	249
North-West of Greece Railway	74
Athens-Piræus Railway	10
Kephissia (Attic) Railway	76
Pyrgos-Katakolo Railway	13
Total	1,616

Railways

SUMMARY.

RAILWAYS OF GREECE: MILEAGE AND FINANCIAL STATUS.

Name of Railway.	Share and Debenture Capital Issued.	Miles Worked	Share Face Value.	Dividend Per cent.
	£		£	
Hellenic Railway (Larissa Frontier)	400,000	275	10	1·4
	2,633,980		100	4·0
Piræus - Athens - Peloponnesus	600,000	423	20	5·0
	995,902		100	5·0
Thessalian Railway ...	893,170	145	10	2·6
	223,364		10	5·0
Piræus-Athens Electric ...	226,320	6·2	8	9¾
	362,752		8	5·0
North-West of Greece ...	121,000	64	8	3·0
	44,000		20	6·0
	13,500		20	5·0
Attica Railway (Kephissia)	280,000	76	8	
Pyrgos-Katakole	58,000	13	4	4½

Up to the present there have been but few State lines constructed, the existing systems, of which there are seven, either belonging to or being leased by private enterprises. With two exceptions, also, the lines are metre-gauge.

The various systems may be taken in the following order regarding their importance :—

1. Piræus, Athens, and Peloponnesus Railway Company.
2. The Hellenic (Larissa) Railway Company.
3. The Thessalian Railway Company.
4. The North-West Railway of Greece Company.
5. The Athens-Piræus Railway (Electric) Company.
6. The Kephissia (Attic) Railway Company (with branch owned by the Grecian Marbles (Marmor), Limited).
7. The Pyrgos-Katakolo Railway Company.

The head offices of the railways are, with the exception of the Thessalian Railway, situated in Athens. None of the headquarter offices are, as constructions, in any way imposing, while they at the same time lack

many of the usual conveniences, and even sufficient public accommodation.

The Piræus, Athens, and Peloponnesus terminus faces that of the Hellenic (or Larissa) Railway, at the north-west corner of the capital, and one had to pass over some very bad roads in order to reach them. Plans for new and much more commodius buildings have now been submitted to, and approved of by, the Government, and construction work will proceed shortly upon those for the first-named company.

The Thessalian Railway's terminus, situated at Volo, is the best building both externally and internally, being constructed of good stone. It was erected at the time that the line was inaugurated, namely, in 1884. Handsome administration offices and commodious waiting-rooms, ample goods-sheds, and extensive shunting-yards are the main features of this station.

That the transportation carried on upon the Greek railways is of some importance is proved by the following figures for the year 1910, the full returns for 1911 being, as yet, incomplete :—

	Passengers.
Athens-Piræus (Electric) Railway	4,900,000
Piræus-Athens-Peloponnesus Railway	2,000,000
Kephissia (Attic) Railway	804,000
Thessalian Railway	555,000
Hellenic (Larissa) Railway	420,000
North-West Railway of Greece	195,000
Pyrgos-Katakolo Railway...	90,000
Total	8,964,000

The goods traffics over the same period show a small but appreciable improvement, the principal lines—omitting the Pyrgos-Katakolo, which is purely a currant-carrying line—giving the following results :—

	Tons.
Piræus-Athens-Peloponnesus Railway	312,000
Thessalian Railway	100,000
Hellenic (Larissa) Railway	65,000
Athens-Piræus (Electric) Railway	60,000
North-West Railway of Greece	23,800
Kephissia (Attic) Railway	20,000
Total	580,800

The receipts and expenditures over the same period were :—

	Dr.
Receipts	14,071,431
Expenditure	9,247,205
Showing a surplus of	4,824,226

The share of the receipts paid to the State amounted to 1,670,000 dr.

For the first four months of the present year (January 1st to April 30th) the receipts from the traffics upon the railways augmented even more remarkably, as the following figures, which reach me as my volume goes to press, will sufficiently prove :—

	1912 (4 months)	1911 (4 months)
	Dr.	Dr.
Athens-Piræus-Peloponnesus Company ...	2,172,538	2,061,010
Hellenic Railway Company...	670,448	527,814
Athens (short line) Railway Company ...	642,895	574,962
Thessalian Railway Company	814,731	663,708

There were but few accidents to passengers recorded upon the Greek railways for the year 1910, the net results of the united working of the lines being twelve deaths and thirty-one wounded. The first-named figures, however, include several suicides by persons deliberately lying down upon the rails as a train was approaching, a rather too-frequent occurrence in this country.

A somewhat serious drawback to comfortable railway travelling in Greece is the lack of refreshment-rooms, or even of moderately commodious and well-managed buffets. Upon all of the four main systems of railway the same deficiency exists, and this is explained in part by the fact that up till now anything like a systematic or regular tourist traffic has been lacking; were there to set in a greater movement among first-class travellers, there is little reason to doubt that the companies would, as much in their own interests as

in their desire to accommodate their patrons, institute an efficient catering branch of their business. In course of time such an innovation is bound to be forthcoming; but, meanwhile, European travellers who are accustomed to good food, cleanly served at moderate prices—and in no country of the world has this question been more closely studied nor more admirably satisfied than in Great Britain—must accept the unappetising and usually unwholesome diet offered at the wayside stations, at—it must be admitted—very low prices, but quite unacceptable to a refined palate.

Coffee in abundance may be obtained, but it is served *à la turque*, agreeable enough, no doubt, after luncheon or dinner, but unsatisfying to the hungry and thirsty traveller. Greasy pork-sausages; strangely mutilated limbs or fragments of poultry; lumps of hard and sour bread; delicious oranges, and, at the proper seasons, an ample supply of such fruits as figs, apples, pears, bananas, and melons can also be obtained.

The regular and well-served luncheon, consisting of several courses, daintily prepared tea, or a breakfast composed of eggs, tea, and toast, such as the average Englishman, at least, craves for, are unknown luxuries to be found at a Greek railway-station.

In this richly agricultural country it is also at most times very difficult to obtain cow's milk; while few vegetables are grown for sale, the greater part find their way to Athens, thus leaving the country towns bare of supply. Fresh fish, in spite of the enormous coast-line of Greece (which is nearly seven times as long as that of Great Britain) is no less hard to obtain upon occasions; while at all times it is comparatively high in price.

But Greece is still a young country from a development point of view, and these drawbacks, trying as they may appear to the pampered traveller of to-day, will be overcome in time, and, indeed, they are being overcome or minimised day by day.

Piræus-Athens-Peloponnesus Railway

Taking the systems in the order of their commercial importance, a description may be given of the Piræus, Athens, and Peloponnesus Railway Company (Chemin de fer du Pirée-Athènes-Peloponèse), commonly known as the "Spap," a word formed by the amalgamation of the initials of the railway's title in Greek, and which has been in existence since the year 1882. Besides possessing a considerable length of track of its own, this company works a number of lines constructed and belonging to the State. The company's own sections are the Piræus-Athens-Olympia-Cylène and the Corinth-Myli-Nauplia routes, while those belonging to the State comprise the Diakofto-Kalavryta, the Myli-Kalamata, and the Pyrgos-Kyparissia-Meligala routes.

Upon these systems both the narrow (0·75 cm.) and standard (1 metre) gauges are found. The length of lines worked is as follows :—

	Kilometres.
Piræus-Patras-Pyrgos-Olympia, Corinth-Nauplia-Myli, and Kavassila-Cylène	453
Myli-Kalamata-Megalopolis	184
Pyrgos-Kyparissia-Meligala	95
Diakofto-Kalavryta	22
Total	754

The company holds the concession for the working of the whole of the lines for a term of ninety-nine years from 1882 (with the single exception of the Diakofto-Kalavryta line, of about 22 kilometres, which is only for a period of thirty years from 1893), and when the concession expires the lines with all their equipment revert to the Government without payment.

The first line upon this company's systems was laid about the year 1883, the Myli-Kalamata section being completed in 1899; the Pyrgos-Kyparissia-Meligala section about 1902, and the Diakofto-Kalavryta section was finished and amalgamated into the system in the year 1895.

A glance at the map of the country will show that

these systems cover by far the most densely populated and the most productive portions of the Hellenic kingdom, so that it is easy to understand why this should be regarded as the most important of the Grecian railway companies.

From an engineering point of view the system is distinctly interesting, while some portions of the line may be regarded as ranking among the most attractive from a scenic point of view to be found in all Europe.

Upon the Piræus-Athens-Peloponnesus system there is found a large number of bridges, viaducts, and tunnels, among which the following are the more important :—

Upon the line between Piræus, Patras, and Olympia, and between Corinth and Nauplia and the different branches (upon which the gauge is 1 metre in width), there are (1) two steel platform bridges, each 35 metres in length, lattice-work girder pattern ; (2) one bridge of three openings of 30 metres ; (3) one bridge of five openings of 17 metres ; (4) one bridge of three openings of 20 metres ; (5) one bridge of 57 metres ; (6) one bridge of 50 metres, both the latter having three openings ; (7) one bridge of 68 metres in length, with four openings ; and (8) one bridge of 80 metres, with three openings. All of the above were constructed by the German firm of Gutehoffungshütten, Oberhausen. In addition to the above, there is a single-span lattice-girder bridge crossing the Corinth Canal at a considerable height, with an opening of 80 metres, and which was constructed at the Atéliers de Mantataire, of Paris. There are neither viaducts nor tunnels upon this section of the system.

Upon the Myli-Kalamata line and branches, the gauge of which is also 1 metre in width, the following engineering structures are worthy of note : (1) fifteen viaducts, having from two to eight openings each, of a width of 12½ metres ; (2) three bridges of 30 metres opening ; (3) two bridges of 40 metres opening ;

(4) two bridges of 50 metres; (5) two bridges of 100 metres, with three openings; (6) a bridge of 250 metres with five openings; (7) a bridge of 110 metres and four openings; and (8) a bridge of 45 metres and three openings. All of the above were constructed at the Usines de Braine-le Comte, in Belgium. Upon this section there are eleven tunnels, of a height of 5 metres 30 centimetres, and a width of 4 metres 30 centimetres, the length varying between 41 and 270 metres.

Upon the Pyrgos-Kyparissia-Meligala route, the gauge of which is 1 metre, there are (1) five viaducts with openings varying between three and eight, each of 12½ metres in length; (2) a steel bridge across the River Alphée, with six openings each of 50 metres, and which was constructed at the Usines de Baume et Marpent, in Belgium, the cost of same being 686,000 frs.; (3) a similar bridge spanning the River Néda, with an opening of 30 metres, which was constructed at the same works and cost 91,500 frs. There are no tunnels upon this section.

Upon the comparatively short Diakofto-Kalavryta narrow-gauge line (0·75 cm.), out of a total length of 22·345 kilometres, 3,473 metres are rack railroad constructed upon the Abt system. There are seven arched bridges with openings varying between 20 and 25 metres.

Upon the Myli-Kalamata branch the maximum gradient is 2·5 and the minimum radius 110 metres, while upon the Myli-Kalamata-Pyrgos-Kyparissia lines the maximum gradient is 2·20 on the straight and 1·90 on the curve. Upon the Diakofto-Kalavryta line, which, as already mentioned, consists of both adhesive and rack-railway construction, the maximum gradient upon the former is 3·40 with a minimum radius of 40 metres, while upon the rack section the maximum gradient is 14·50 with a minimum radius of 80 metres.

Upon this company's lines there is no new con-

struction in actual progress, but the following lines are projected and will probably be undertaken, at least in part, during the coming year :—

	Kilometres.
Projected lines of 1 metre gauge from Leontari to Sparta	58
From Sparta to Xirocambi	13
From Kyparissia to Gargaliani	27
Total	98

Of stations there are a large number, as may be supposed in view of the considerable length of line operated by the company ; but the greater majority of these constructions are small and of insignificant appearance. While there are eight principal station buildings, none of them can be regarded as constructional successes. The terminus at Athens itself is wholly unworthy of a system of such importance as this, while at Patras, which next to the capital is the most important commercial centre, there exists no regular station whatever, all trains arriving and departing coming to a stand in the centre of the public road, where passengers must alight and embark, and baggage and heavy freight must be loaded and unloaded. I have been shown plans of some new buildings which are about to be erected in the capital and at other centres ; funds are also being raised to construct suitable stations at both Piræus and Patras, as well as at other points where urgently needed.

While the greater part of the track upon all the sections dealt with above is maintained in a fair state of repair, there are certain portions, notably those between Kalonero and Pyrgos, which have fallen into a very poor state, and which need immediate attention. Doubtless so soon as the finances of the company permit of the expenditure, this matter will be attended to.

In regard to the rolling-stock owned by the company, and with which it works both its own and the

RAILWAY MAP OF THE PIRÆUS-ATHENS-PELOPONNESUS SYSTEM.

(For description see Chapters XVI. and XVII.

To face p. 196.

leased State lines, there are 90 locomotives, 228 passenger carriages, and 773 goods-wagons. This equipment cannot be regarded in any way as adequate, either in quantity or quality, to the length of line operated, and considerable inconvenience is frequently experienced on account of the shortage in the rolling-stock.

The fuel burnt upon this railway is in the form of briquettes, of which the company uses no fewer than 18,000 tons annually, in fact, the whole of the amount which is imported into the country from Belgium. I understand that Holland has offered to supply the same quality and quantity at a slightly lower price, and no doubt the company will later on change its market.

The reason for using briquettes instead of lump coal is the facility for stacking and the limited amount of space available in the small tenders which are used on the Piræus-Athens-Peloponneus Railway. Then, again, the briquettes burn more briskly and produce steam more quickly, while they generate less smoke. On the whole, the cost works out a little less than for lump coal.

The management of this railway might very well try the effect of oil fuel. This has never been done; but there is no country where fuel-oil could be more easily nor more cheaply imported than Greece. An oil-ship could deliver directly to the railway depôts of any one of three ports where its lines touch—Piræus, Patras, or Kalamata. Perhaps some day an enterprising chief engineer will awaken to the probabilities which have hitherto been so strangely neglected.

The staff employed is, in my opinion, considerably in excess of what should be necessary, there being no fewer than 1,854 employees and workmen, which, upon a line of 754 kilometres in length, gives an average of something like 2½ men per kilometre. This may, to some extent, account for the modest remunerative return made by the company, the financial position of which, although considerably improved of late years, is by no

means as satisfactory as could be desired or that it may yet become.

In regard to the financing of the system generally, the position is somewhat complicated owing to the numerous different agreements which have been made between the company and the Government, involving payments by the latter to the former upon completion of constructions, and by the company to the Government in the shape of rental and a proportion of the receipts; thus, no good purpose would be served by an attempt to give here a detailed description of the position.

It may be sufficient to state that the securities in which British investors are mainly concerned are the 3 per cent. gold obligations, the 5 per cent. paper obligations, the 4½ per cent. first mortgage bonds, the 5 per cent. mortgage bonds, and the 3½ per cent. mortgage bonds. The coupons of these securities are paid with great regularity, while for the year 1911 a moderate dividend, equal to 5 per cent. per annum, has also been earned and distributed upon the ordinary shares. It has to be remembered, however, that in the year 1899 the shares, which had a face-value of 275 dr., were reduced to a value of 100 dr., while in 1906 the capital was increased from 12,000,000 dr. to 15,000,000 dr.

It may be said that under the careful and conscientious management of the Director-General, M. A. T. Matsas, aided by the services of M. Michel Joannides, Engineer-in-Chief of Ways and Constructions, the systems have latterly made consistent progress. This is clearly shown by the last balance-sheet put forward by the company.

There can be no question that it will be necessary almost immediately to issue a new loan in connection with the conduct of the Piræus-Athens-Peloponnesus Railway, and I understand that arrangements to this effect are already far advanced. With the proceeds of such new loan, the amount of £240,000, which was

borrowed from Messrs. R. Raphael & Co., of London, will be repaid, although it is not due for redemption until the year 1914. The three principal banks of Greece, namely, the National Bank, the Bank of Athens, and the Orient Bank, have combined to finance the company, which will thus be enabled to proceed with some of its long contemplated and urgently needed extensions and improvements, as well as replace some of its more antiquated and inefficient rolling-stock.

CHAPTER XVII

Railways (*continued*) — North-West Railway of Greece — Track — Branches—Sleepers—Engineering features—Gradients—Rolling-stock—Traffics—Receipts and Expenditure—Management.
Thessalian Railway—Route—Branches—Territory served—Rolling-stock—Management.
Attica Railway—Transfer of ownership—Capital—Route—Junction at Strophili—Rolling-stock.
Athens-Piræus Railway—Capital—Route—Rolling-stock.
Pyrgos-Katakolo Railway—Stations—Capital—Profits earned.

THE North-West Railway of Greece is at present only the nucleus of what may one day become an important and extensive system, by means of which the Eparchies of Missolonghi, Trikhonie, and Valtos will be linked up by a line of railway which will ultimately reach to and beyond the Turkish frontier at the town of Arta, always supposing that the Turks will allow of it. At the present time the rails are laid only between the part of Kryoneri and Agrinion, a distance of 61·4 kilometres, but construction is proceeding beyond this point, and it is hoped that in due course some arrangements may be made with the Turkish Government by which the line can be carried to and beyond its present destination.

The existing mileage of the railway is as follows :—

	Kilometres.
Missolonghi to Agrinion	44·4
Kryoneri to Missolonghi	17
Kalyvia to Achéloas	2
	63·4
Under construction :—	
Branch from Missolonghi station to the town ...	0·6
„ „ Actolico to Katochi	10·1
Total	74·1

HELLENIC RAILWAY : BRIDGE BETWEEN KILOMETRE 202 AND KILOMETRE 211.
The surrounding scenery is magnificent.
(See p. 211.)

NORTH-WEST RAILWAY OF GREECE : BRIDGE AT KILOMETRE 48, NEAR THE ANGHELOCASTRO STATION. (See p. 200.)

The two last-mentioned branches are being constructed by the present administration, whereas the first part of the line (Missolonghi-Agrinion) was built by the original concessionaire, a Belgian, by name Valère Mabille, and the portion from Kryoneri to Missolonghi, by M. Ch. Apostolides. In addition to the above track, there are some 7·6 kilometres of shunting lines and sidings. It will be observed that the actual amount of track now in use does not exceed 63·4 kilometres.

The width of the track is 1 metre, the whole of which is laid with wooden sleepers, which have hitherto been found far from satisfactory, owing to the fact that the sea-air has a markedly destructive effect upon the wood. Whereas the ordinary wooden sleeper ought to last from twenty to twenty-five years, those of the North-West Railway must be replaced every eight years; moreover, foreign sleepers have to be employed, although of inferior quality, since they can be imported more cheaply than the native wood can be cut and transported from the distant mountain forests. In regard to new branches under construction, namely, between Missolonghi station and the town, and between Actolico and Katochi, steel sleepers are now being used, a large number having been received from Belgium, which, it is hoped, will solve the question of a moderately priced and more enduring tie.

The engineering features of this line are neither very important nor especially interesting. Considering the length of the line, the number of bridges and culverts is nevertheless noteworthy, even if calling for little detailed description.

The most important bridge is that constructed over the River Euēnos, being 240 metres in length and having twelve spans. Another construction worthy of mention is the steel bridge which carries the railway across the mouth of the River Trichonis. A third somewhat remarkable bridge is found at kilom. 48,

near to the railway station of Anghelocastro. Two masonry bridges, of a respective length of 237·50 and 24·1 metres, have been constructed upon the arm of the sea which extends for some length at Actolico.

There are no tunnels upon this line, while in regard to gradients the maximum is 20 metres and the average 4·6. The rolling-stock, which was constructed at Provenance, Belgium, consists of the following: 5 locomotives, each of a weight of 20 tons, and one locomotive weighing 24 tons; 10 passenger coaches; 4 baggage wagons and 90 goods wagons. The rolling-stock is maintained in very fair condition, most of it, indeed, being new, and of almost exactly the same type as can be found upon the Belgian railways to-day.

The *personnel* of the railway staff consists of 18 men in the construction department, 17 in the workshops, 38 engaged upon maintenance of permanent way, 45 upon the ordinary staff, 8 in the accountant's department, and 3 in the administration department.

The workshops are situated at Missolonghi, and, although small, are fairly complete in regard to their equipment.

The amount of traffic carried upon this railway for the year 1910 was as follows:—

Traffic.		Average Distance carried.
Passengers ...	195,666 ...	21·46 kilometres per passenger
Animals ...	10,795 ...	42·5 „ „ head
Goods ...	23,800 tons	47·063 „ „ ton

The character of the goods carried was as follows:—

	Per cent.
Wood	58
Commodities	8·5
Tobacco	8
Flour	8
Olives and Oil	4
Foodstuffs	3
Hides	2·5
Construction material	2·5
Various	5·5
Total	100·0

North-West Railway of Greece

The receipts and expenditure of this line for the past two years were as follows :—

1910	Dr.	1911	Dr.
Receipts	336,431.76	Receipts	347,199.80
Expenditure ...	232,205.73	Expenditure ...	219,306.01
Balance ...	114,226.03	Balance	127,893.79

From this it will be seen that the profits for last year exceeded those of 1910 by the small sum of 13,667.76 dr.

Dividends have been paid of 2 per cent. in 1910 and 3 per cent. in 1911, but nothing was earned in 1909, when the figures were :—

	Dr.
Receipts	315,090.85
Expenditure	288,199.19
Balance	86,891.66

Including the small landing-stage on the Bay of Kryoneri from which the train starts, there are twelve stations, namely : Kryoneri, Galatas, Bochori, Missolonghi, Salines, Ætolikon, Stamna, Anghelocastro, Kalyvia, Platanos, Dokimion, and Agrinion. Little has been expended upon any of these constructions, and in the event of the line ever becoming an important trunk between Northern Greece and Central Europe (via Arta), practically the whole of these station buildings would have to be remodelled and enlarged.

During the summer months the railway company's ferryboat *Kalydon*, which brings the passengers from and to Patras without extra charges, becomes an excursion boat, and for the small sum of 2.10 dr. carries first-class passengers to and fro between Patras and Kryoneri. They are, however, not permitted to land at the latter port ; but inasmuch as this so-called "port" consists of but two or three stone-built huts, situated upon an unhealthy and uneven piece of rocky ground jutting out into the sea, the deprivation is not serious.

The passenger railway rates are exceedingly cheap, as are two-horsed carriages—of a very primitive character, and wretchedly equipped—which are necessary to those who would travel afar from the railway track in order to visit such places as Turlis and Lepanto, the ruins of Kalydon Stratos, Valines, and Ænias, the convents of St. Simeon, St. Misericord, and Lygovitsi, and the lakes of Oziros, Rivios, and Ambracie.

The capital of the North-West Railway of Greece is 3,000,000 dr. (say £120,000), divided into 15,000 shares of 200 dr. (£8) each. The company was formed in 1890, but until 1910 no dividend had been distributed among the shareholders, the reason being the necessity of paying off three heavy loans which the company had contracted when building the line originally. The Board of Directors, which sits in Athens, includes M. Jean Valaoritis (President), MM. A. Matsas, P. Calligas, P. Bassiacos, L. Rossel, and V. Doucas. The Secretary-General is M. S. Typaldo, who has his office also at Athens, and the General Manager, with head-offices at Missolonghi, is M. A. Economo.

The Thessalian Railway Company was founded in 1882, with a capital of 23,000,000 dr. (£920,000), divided into 92,000 shares of 250 dr. (£10) each.

Although among the smaller, the Thessalian Railway ranks as one of the more important of the country's systems, owing to its serving the rapidly developing agricultural province of Thessaly, the granary of Greece, and the port of Volo, the third busiest seaport in Greece. The total length of track worked does not at present exceed 250 kilometres, which is made up as follows :—

	Kilometres.
Volo to Larissa	60·2
„ „ Kalambaka	161·4
„ „ Miliès	28·2
Total	249·8

The Thessalian Railway

The original concession which the company holds from the Government will expire in 1981, but the Government has had the right, since 1901, to take over and work the line upon the following terms: The compensation is to be estimated by adding the receipts for nine consecutive years and deducting from the total the receipts for the two least renumerative years; the average of the receipts for the seven years remaining shall then be regarded as constituting the basis of annual payment to be made by the Government to the company during the remaining years of the concession. The line has been in receipt of a kilometric guarantee from the Government from the beginning.

Generally speaking, the country through which the railway passes is unattractive—as a whole—from a scenic point of view, in spite of the fact that the system serves some of the most beautiful resorts to be found in Greece, such, for instance, as the Vale of Tempe and the district of Kalambaka. Between Volo and Larissa the line crosses the small but well-tilled plain of Volo, to the north-east of which rise the broad flanks of Mount Pellion. Thereafter it traverses the mountainous eastern part of the Thessalian Plain, with its serrated hills far away upon the horizon.

The line between Volo and Kalambaka is more frequented and is decidedly more interesting from an engineering point of view, since it possesses several cuttings made through a chain of hills which separates the plain of Velestino from the plain of Armyro. It is between the two stations of Persouphli and Aivali that the best view of the Pindos chain of mountains is obtained. The railway then proceeds across the plain of Pharsalos, and at Demerli Bridge it is joined up with the new line of the Hellenic (Larissa) Railway. The principal junctions on this line are Karditza and Trikkala, while Kalambaka is also of some importance. It is from the latter point that a visit is paid on horseback to the famous monasteries of Metéora, assuredly

the most extraordinary of human habitations that can be found in any part of the world.

The lines of the Thessalian Railway are of two gauges, the normal gauge of 1 metre in width being found upon the sections between Volo and Kalambaka, and between Volo and Larissa, whilst the track from Volo to Lechonia and Miliès is of narrow gauge—namely, 0·60 of a metre, in width. Construction was commenced upon the first two sections named in the year 1882, the date of the formation of the company, and was finished in 1884, whilst the narrow-gauge line to Lechonia and Miliès, which runs through the principal street of Volo and is to all intents and purposes a steam tramway, was not commenced until 1893 nor finished until 1896. The total cost of the normal-gauge lines amounted to about 27,973,000 dr., of which sum the company paid 24,858,000 dr., while the Government contributed 2,827,000 dr. in subventions, and 288,000 dr. for dispossessions. The outlay upon the narrow-gauge track reached a total of 2,028,400 dr., towards which the Government contributed the sum of 119,000 dr. for dispossessions.

With regard to the rolling-stock, the Thessalian Railway is sufficiently provided, the service not calling for any very large equipment. There are 24 locomotives, of which 19 are used upon the normal-gauge sections, and 5 upon the narrow-gauge railway. Of the 73 passenger coaches, which afford sitting accommodation for 2,186 persons (452 first-class, 192 second-class, and 1,542 third-class), 55 are used upon the Volo-Larissa and the Volo-Kalambaka lines, and all of which are of the central-corridor type, while the remaining 18 are used upon the Volo to Miliès branch, of which 14 are central-corridor and 4 of the ordinary type. The classes upon the normal-gauge sections are first, second, and third, but upon the branch to Miliès there are only two classes, namely, first and third. There are 10 luggage vans, 202 open goods-wagons, and 146

covered goods-wagons, or a total of 358 wagons of all sorts, and having an aggregate capacity of 3,570 tons.

The Attica Railway Company, which was floated with a capital of 5,400,000 dr. (£216,000), divided into 27,000 shares of 200 dr. (£8) each, obtained its concession from the Greek Government in 1882, but before it eventually expires, in 1989, the Government have the right to purchase the system from the Company at any time after the year 1920.

The work of construction commenced in the same year of the granting of the concession, and the total length of the lines, which were finally completed in 1885, is 74 kilometres. In the month of March last (1912) the greater part of the shares giving control were purchased by the Hellenic Electricity Company (Compagnie Hellénique d'Electricité), which has a capital of 30,000,000 dr. (£1,200,000) in shares and mortgage bonds. The latter have a face value of 500 dr. (£20) each and are entitled to an interest of 4 per cent., the former are for 100 dr. (£4) each, and are receiving regular dividends of 5 per cent.

At the Athens terminus there is no regular station belonging to this railway, the trains starting from the centre of the street known as the Rue Béranger, near the Place de la Concorde. The line, which is practically a tramway worked by steam, serves some of the suburbs of the town, and for a certain distance runs north parallel to the Peloponnesian Railway. At a distance of 9·200 kilometres from Athens, Iraklion station is reached, from which point the line bifurcates, one branch proceeding to Laurium, nearly 67 kilometres from Athens, while the other branch runs to the popular summer resort of Kephissia, a distance of 15·69 kilometres from Athens, and whence it proceeds 1 kilometre farther on to Strophili. Here it joins up with a small private railway connecting the last-named point

with Dionysius, and belonging to Messrs. Marmor, Ltd., an English company known formerly as the Greek Marbles Company, Ltd., working the marbles at Pentelikon.

Between Iraklion and Laurium the Attica Railway passes through wide stretches of olive plantations and pine-woods, and several pleasant villages, with populations varying between 2,000 and 3,000. This line subsequently descends to the left through a long valley leading to the town and bay of Laurium. The last-named town consists principally of the prosaic-looking houses occupied by the Laurium Mining Company's workpeople, most of whom are Greeks, although the officials are composed of French, German, Italians, and English.

The Attica railroad proved an easy one to lay, as there are no tunnels nor any bridges of much consequence. The gauge is normal (1 metre), and of the 74 kilometres of track some 51·163 are on the straight, while the aggregate length of the curved portion of the system is 22·177 kilometres. The rolling-stock consists of 11 locomotives; 46 passenger coaches, all of which are built upon the central-corridor pattern, and which will seat 566 first-class passengers, 40 second-class, and 533 third-class passengers, or a total of 1,139 of all classes; 6 luggage-vans, 38 open goods-wagons, and 10 covered goods-wagons, or a total of 54 wagons of all patterns, the aggregate capacity of which amounts to 286 tons.

The Athens-Piræus Railway Company, which operates an electric line between the capital and its port, is working a concession granted in 1867, and which will expire in 1943. The work of construction was commenced in the year first above mentioned, and the company's original line of 8·600 kilometres was completed in 1869. By an agreement made in March,

1900, the company absorbed a separate undertaking known as the Extension Company (La Compagnie du Prolongement), and took over the working of its line of 1·400 kilometres. The original capital of the company was 5,000,000 dr. (£200,000), but when the additional line was taken over this was raised to 5,658,800 dr. (£226,352) divided into 28,294 shares of 200 dr. (£8) each.

The company's line, which is of broad gauge, namely, 1·44 metres in width, is now 10 kilometres in length, and serves five stations after leaving the Athens terminus near the Place de la Concorde. These are as follows: Monaster (0·850 kiloms.), Theseion (1·300 kiloms.), Moshato (5·900 kiloms.), Phaleron (7·730 kiloms.), and Piræus (10 kiloms.). All of these contribute their quota of passengers, the seaside and summer resort of Phaleron being a particularly popular one with the Athenians. During the summer the trains in early mornings and late evenings are very crowded, and it is difficult to obtain accommodation. The rolling-stock owned by the company consists of 22 locomotives; 40 passenger coaches, capable of seating 556 first-class and 880 second-class, or a total of 1,436 passengers; 5 baggage-wagons, 20 open goods-wagons, and 4 covered wagons, the total capacity of which is 240 tons.

The Pyrgos-Katakolo Railway was built to serve the harbour of the same name, and was constructed in 1857. It passes through a portion of the currant-growing valley of the Alpheios, the terminus of the line being at a distance of 7½ miles from Pyrgos. There is also another branch from Pyrgos to Olympia (belonging, however, to the Peloponnesus Railway Company), which likewise traverses the valley of the Alpheios, the distance being 12½ miles. The stations on the Katakola line number six, and are: Lampeti,

1¼ miles; Alpheios, 4½; Koukoura, 6; Strephi, 8; Kriekouki, 10; and Platanos, 10½. The journey, short as it is, occupies one hour to complete.

The capital of this small company, which was formed in 1882, several years after the railway had been completed, is 14,500,000 dr. (£580,000), divided into 14,500 shares each of a value of 100 dr., and of these over 300 have been paid off. The dividends for the past few years have averaged 3 per cent., but in 1909 it was raised to 4 per cent., and last year it amounted to 5 per cent., after liberal allowances had been made for depreciation, renewal of rolling-stock, &c. As all the shares of the railway are held by the leading banks and private individuals, they are not quoted upon the local Bourse.

THE HELLENIC RAILWAY: BRIDGE OVER THE PENEIOS. (See pp. 219 and 220.)

THE HELLENIC RAILWAY: VIADUCT OVER THE GORGOPOTAMOS. (See p. 219.)

CHAPTER XVIII

Railways (*continued*)—The Hellenic Railway—Early difficulties—Construction problems—French capital—London bankers assist—Engineering features—Gauge—Gradient—Tunnels—Track—Interesting route—Heavy work—Substructures—Disasters encountered—Bralo tunnel—Bridges—Novel designs—Adverse criticisms—Policy justified—Picturesque features—Gorgopotamos bridge—Progressive character of line—Proposed linking up with European systems—Routes considered—Benefits accruing from Tempé Valley route—Future traffics.

THE absence of any through-road linking up the south to the north made itself acutely felt in 1878, when Thessaly was ceded to Greece. The sea was practically the only means by which traffic could be carried on. Roads from the towns in the interior to the coast were, in most cases, little more than rough mule tracks. Following on the war, and the impossibility of establishing a proper police control owing to the physical nature of the country, it is not to be wondered that the kingdom was infested by brigands; and the isolated towns, which were out of touch with the rest of the world, led a hand-to-mouth existence.

The question of a railway from the Piræus to the Turkish frontier was then mooted, but the country was not in a position to carry out such an undertaking. The next best thing was done, however, for the development and security of the kingdom by the construction of roads. It is to be observed that with the completion of these in 1891 brigandage came to an end.

The railway question was too important to be long

allowed to drop. The cost of such a construction delayed its execution until 1889, when the contract was given to Messrs. Eckersley, Godfrey, and Liddelow, and work started on the following year.

Innumerable difficulties were met with. First, differences arose with the Government; work slackened in 1892, and the following year the work was stopped altogether; and finally the contract was cancelled. The Government then took the railway in hand, but owing to the financial crisis which ensued work could not be carried out; maintenance alone could be thought of, and later on even that was practically abandoned.

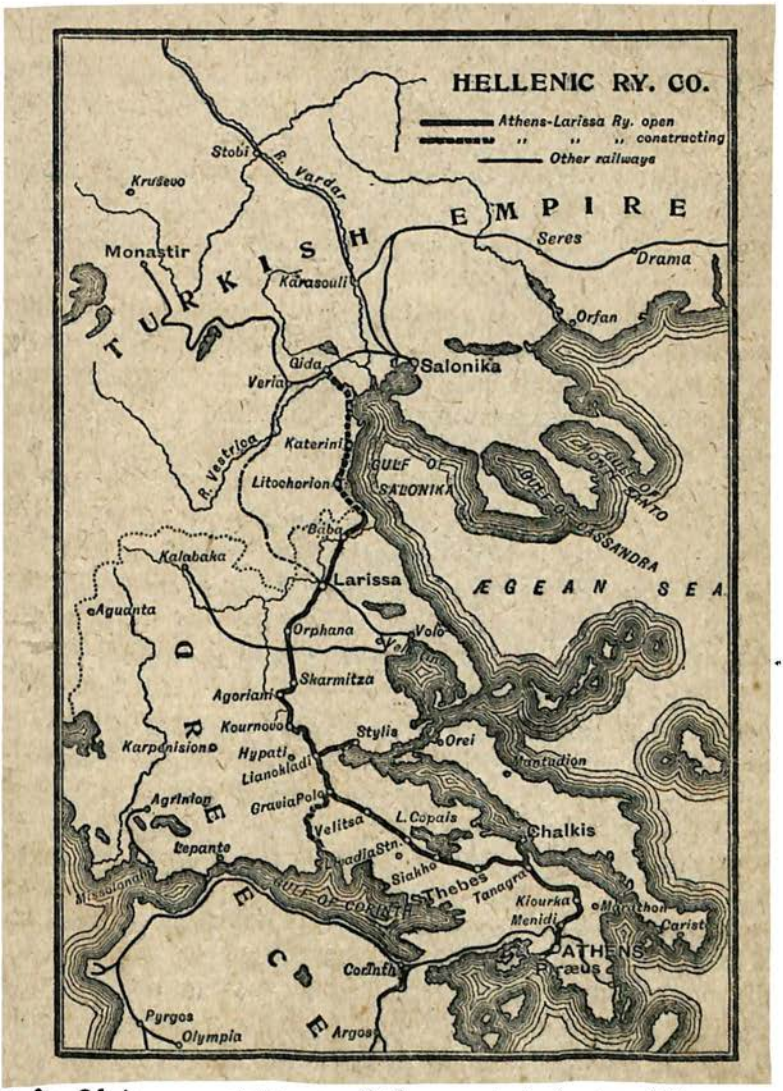
M. Demetrius Georgiades, a well-known and influential financier residing in Paris, then took up the matter on behalf of the Eastern Construction Company, and he obtained a concession for the building of the railway from the Piræus to the Turkish frontier.

In due course the Société Hellénique de Chemin de Fer (Hellenic Railway Company) was incorporated in Athens, with a capital of 10,000,000 dr. (equal to £400,000), under the ægis of Messrs. Emile Erlanger & Co.; of Messrs. Pauling & Co., Ltd., in England, and of the Société de Construction des Batignolles, in France. The actual construction was entrusted to Messrs. Pauling & Co. and the Société des Batignolles jointly, the latter company taking over the management.

Construction was commenced in 1902 and concluded in 1907. To defray the cost, in addition to the 10,000,000 dr. of capital above mentioned, a 4 per cent. Greek railway loan of £2,225,000 was financed by Messrs. Hambro and Messrs. Erlanger. The cost of the line has therefore amounted to £2,650,000, without taking into account the vast sums expended under the Eckersley contract. This expenditure, which is spread over a line of 440 kilometres, is an eloquent testimony of the appalling engineering difficulties which the works presented, especially if is taken into account the undoubted fact that the contractors did not succeed

in securing any profit whatsoever out of their several years' labour.

The gauge of the line is normal—that is to say,



4 ft. 8½ in., or 1·44 m. It is, as stated, 440 kilometres long, and it has 57 tunnels, totalling 10,390 metres, and one of which, the Bralo tunnel, has a length of

2,110 metres, three others being each over 500 metres long. The maximum gradient is a little over 2 per cent., and the average on the whole system is 0·0076 per metre. The minimum curve is of 300-metre radius, and the rails weigh 32 kilogrammes per metre.

Starting from the Piræus, the line reaches Athens (10 kiloms.) and thence proceeds to Menedi and on to Tatoï (25 kiloms.), where is situated, within easy reach of the line, his Hellenic Majesty's small but charming château, which, surrounded by its own vineyards, produces the famous Dékélia Château Tatoï brand of wine.

Passing through Kiourka Malacassa, the line reaches Skimatari, whence the line to Chalcis (21·665 kiloms. long) branches off, while the main line continues to Thebes (100 kiloms.), passing en route by Tanagra. From Athens to Livadia the country is replete with historic interest, having formed the battle-ground in days of old between Greeks and Macedonians, as well as between the Athenians and the Thebians. It is true that not a vestige remains of the old towns of Thebes and Tanagra; but new discoveries daily bring to light fresh proofs of Tanagra's artistic taste, which made that town famous.

Old Greek ruins, still in very good state of preservation, can be seen at an hour's drive from Chalcis. Chalcis itself is exceedingly interesting, owing to being full of remains of the former Genoese occupation. The world-famed Marathon is quite near. In regard to beautiful scenery, one would indeed have to go far to find anything finer than is met round about Skimatari. A few miles from Thebes (100 kiloms.) one crosses the Plain of Copais, upon which at one time the lake of that name existed, some 100 metres above sea-level; of late years this has been drained into the sea, and has become a large agricultural settlement.

Livadia, at 142 kiloms., is at present the most important town of Bœotia; its principal industry is cotton,

of which it produces some of the finest quality. The town itself, situated on high ground, is not visible from the line. Between Livadia and Dadi can be seen from the railway the celebrated lion, erected by the ancients in memory of Leonidas. It had been broken to pieces during the War of Independence, but it was restored towards the end of last century.

At 197 kiloms. 409 metres above sea-level the long tunnel of Bralo, already mentioned, is reached. This tunnel (2,109 metres) offered considerable difficulties under construction; not only was water met with in abundance, but the whole physical formation was unfavourable. The country between Bralo and Kournovo shows signs of fairly late disturbance, be it upheaval or subsidence; and in confirmation of this it may be stated that in the centre of the tunnel, some 300 ft. below ground-level, portions of trees, still in a state of excellent preservation, were found. Owing to the formation, excepting where rock was met with, the ground proved treacherous over wide stretches, and most expensive drainage and consolidation works had to be resorted to.

The careful manner in which all work was carried out may be understood by noting the results of the Bralo tunnel. The chainage and level were found to be exact on the junction being made, and the difference in centre line was but 4 centimetres, although, to add further to the difficulty of the setting out and carrying on of the works, the tunnel has two reverse curves.

While travelling over the line one is struck with the remarkable scenery. One admires also the engineering structures, and imagines that he is realising some of the difficulties which were met with and overcome in the construction of the line; but, unable to see much below the surface, no thought is given to the stupendous underground work which had to be carried out in order to make the line what it now is.

What this vast substructure meant in thought, labour, and money expended can be better understood when it is explained that near Styrfaka a tunnel some 300 ft. long now replaces what was formerly a cutting, and which had been opened up and considered as finished. The reason of this tunnel being introduced later was that it was noticed that the whole hill was coming down, and it was decided that the only way in which to re-establish the equilibrium was to replace the cutting by a tunnel and then to cover over the crown with earth. In two other cases opened trenches had to be replaced by similar "cut-and-cover" tunnels.

Borings were taken to obtain a better idea of the ground. Shafts, over 40 metres deep, were dug; water filtration followed by underground galleries so as to divert these into proper channels, and to prevent slips and slides, &c.; and this not in one place merely, but over many miles of the line. Seemingly ordinary foundations necessitated forests of timber to keep them open until the retaining walls were put in; and in many cases, although it was concluded that all proper precautions had been taken, timber 15 in. square was crushed into matchwood.

The climax occurred in 1905. Extensive subsidences took place, which broke up part of the line that had been built twelve years previously, and which, at the time the work had been restarted, had been considered as practically finished. Between 201 kiloms. and 202 kiloms. not even a trace of some of the culverts could be found. Over that part of the line the track had to be deviated, two tunnels built, and a most elaborate and expensive system of drainage and protection-work put in, entailing innumerable underground galleries, ventilation and drainage shafts, &c.

This consolidating work had to be carried out wherever danger of slips, slides, &c., existed. Between Styrfaka and Kournovo, and up to Skarmitza, some fifteen important slips were mastered by systems such

as were employed at 201 kiloms., but those at 252 led to a deviation of the line entailing two tunnels, one of 300 and the other of 94 metres in length.

On leaving the Bralo tunnel one reaches the most important bridge on the line. This viaduct, 200 kiloms. from the Piræus, has a total length of 332½ metres, and is poised over a deep and beautiful ravine at a height of some 63 metres. There are six spans in this construction—one of 15 metres, one of 42, one 52½, one of 60, one of 120, and one of 33, which, with the 10 metres for the abutments and pier, give the above length. The steelwork was supplied and erected by the Maison Willebrick, of Belgium. The foundations proved very troublesome, and in one case, although timber was not spared, they caved in and had to be reopened.

This occurred in regard to pier No. 4. Infinite care, to avoid accidents, had to be taken in clearing the cave-in and retimbering, six and a half months' time being required before this was finished and work properly restarted. The dimensions of this foundation are 5·95 by 13·05 m., and are 25·50 deep.

The seeming anomaly of placing 40- to 50-metre spans where a depth of 63 metres existed, and a 120-metre span where the depth was but 25 to 35 metres, led to some sharp criticism of the design; it ought to be explained, however, that the results of the borings between the site of the third and fourth piers were found so unsatisfactory that it was judged unsafe to attempt to found over that length. The difficulties met with in the carrying out of the work fully justified the design finally adopted for the bridge.

One of the most interesting bridges on the line is that near the Thermopylæ Pass, designed and built by the Société de Construction des Batignolles, over the Assopos gorge. Situated between two tunnels, at kilom. 202·375, with rail-level 328 ft. above the bottom of the gorge, the bridge is on a 1·9 per cent. gradient,

with nearly one-half of it on a 20-chain curve. The length of this bridge is 584 ft. The gorge itself is crossed by a three-hinged metallic truss. This three-hinged arch is composed of two trusses leaning inwards at an inclination, with the vertical of 14 per cent., sloping towards each other, so that, at the apex, they are 16·24 ft. apart, while at the basis, moored on masonry foundation, they are 35·55 ft. apart. The extreme distance between the feet of each truss is 262·47 ft. In the direction of Athens the bridge is extended by means of a viaduct of four spans consisting of flat girders, the first three of which rest on the abutment and on three piers built on excessively sidelong ground; whilst the fourth, starting from the third pier, bears on the other side, on the haunch of the hinged arch over the valley. The three spans are of 85·29 ft., whilst the fourth girder, attached to the main arch, is 84·48 ft.

The boldness of the design helps to enhance the wild grandeur of the gorge. From this point until the valley is reached the line shows one long succession of retaining walls, viaducts, and tunnels. The difficulties which had to be overcome in the construction of the portion between kilom. 206 and 215 may, to a certain extent, be appreciated when it is known that although composed of limestone, this, being in a decomposed state, proved unsuitable for masonry, and the thousands of cubic yards of stone required for bridges and tunnel-lining had to be transported from great distances. It was the same with the sand, while miles of pipe lines had to be laid for the supply of water. The difficulty in regard to transport can be more easily understood when it is stated that in the early days of construction the time required to walk from kilom. 208 to kilom. 209½ along the then projected line was tested and found to occupy seven hours. It may be mentioned that these difficulties in regard to stone, sand, water, and transport extended over the major part of the line,

LIVADIA, CHIEF TOWN OF THE NOMOS OF BŒOTIA.
In the distance are seen the mountains of Parnassos and Helikon.
(See p. 214.)

and rendered official supervision as well as the actual labour very costly.

Shortly after leaving the Assopos and emerging from a tunnel, the traveller, at kilom. 206, seemingly through a slit in the gorge, obtains a view of the sea and of the valley ahead. The rugged grandeur of the gorge, which, to all who have been through it, brings to mind Dante's Inferno, strikes one all the more forcibly by contrast with the momentary glimpse one has of the restful valley below, for one is soon again plunged in the darkness of another tunnel. Passing this, one leaves the Thermopylæ Pass to the right, and, following parallel to the valley, but on sidelong ground, one soon reaches the level track, which is now but 24 metres above the sea.

The Gorgopotamos Bridge, at 215 kiloms., has seven 30-metre spans, and it hangs 33 metres above the ravine. Four of the piers and the two abutments are of masonry, but owing to the nature of the ground, and in order to lessen the weight, the two piers on the Athens side were built of steel on masonry foundation. Some 569 metres of underground galleries, 6 ft. high by 3 ft. 6 in. wide, and twenty-three ventilation and drainage shafts were built round the piers and the abutments on the Athens side, draining into the Gorgopotamos.

It may be noted that, expensive as was this work, it was really but an attempt to consolidate the bridge, which had to be erected as quickly as possible to lay the line and permit of work being carried out over the twelve preceding then-inaccessible kilometres. This drainage proved, nevertheless, insufficient; and it was found necessary to underpin the abutment and the first pier so as to deepen and spread the foundation. This work was carried out at a cost of £9,640 for the abutment and £4,620 for the pier.

The following figures relating to the former may be interesting to some of my readers: Bedstone level, 103·23 metres; faced work, 97·34 metres; founda-

tion, 73·90, but stepping down to 69. At the 73·90 level the foundation is 11 by 17½ metres.

At Lianocladi there is a branch line (kilom. 22·520) to the port of Stylis, passing by Lamia. The main line continues through Styrfaka and rises at Kournovo to an altitude of 2,111 ft. above sea-level, after which it again descends and reaches the rich plains of Thessaly to Demirly, at which station, at kilom. 304, it crosses 1-metre gauge Volo-Kalambaka Railway. From Demirly the line proceeds to Larissa, and thence to the present terminus at Pappapouli, kilom. 394·462. Over the latter part of the line are to be noted both the important protection works in the Tempe defile and the bridge over the Tempe River at kilom. 378. This bridge is of three spans, and is 120 metres long; its foundations had to be built on piles.

The following statement, showing the receipts of the line since it was opened, will help to prove how progressive it has been from the commencement, and correlatively testify to the benefits which it has rendered to the districts it serves :—

Year.	Length of Open Line in Kilometres.	Average Receipts per Kilo. in drachmæ.
1904	203	6,937
1905	240	5,232
1906	240	5,508
1907	240	5,556
1908	393	5,235
1909	441	5,181
1910	441	5,278
1911	441	5,788

The first quarter of 1912 shows an increase over the same period of the preceding year of 134,045 drachmæ, or 304 per kilometre, after the Government tax has been deducted.

The national currency coin the drachma, which stood at 0·60 fr. when the works were started in 1902, is

now practically at par. In Greece it is averred that this is due to the continuous flow of gold into the country, sent by its emigrants; abroad it is held that the cause is to be found in the reorganisation of its finances. What none will deny is that it is due to the prosperity of the country itself; and, whatsoever the cause, there can be no doubt that a railway such as this, granting transport facilities by which tracts of land have been developed and creating new outlets for trade, has been no mean factor in helping towards it.

The construction of this line was conceived and carried out in the expectation of it eventually joining the Ottoman railway system at some point on the Monastir-Salonica Railway, and thus linking up the line with the continental train service. The route, which is undoubtedly the most favourable, would be through the Tempé Valley, passing by Karalik Derven to Gida, a station on the above-mentioned railway. This proposed line, about 100 kilometres in length, offers no engineering difficulties. Grades and curves such as exist on the Ottoman and Greek railways could be adopted, and the expenditure would not exceed the

average cost of the Ottoman railways already constructed.

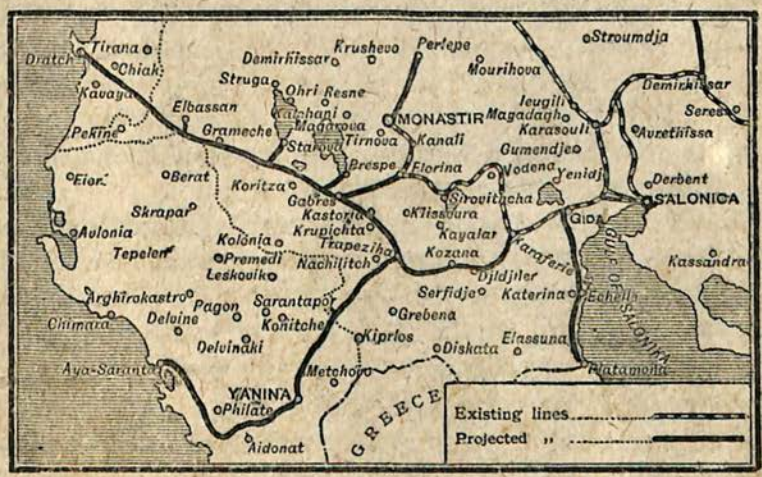
The economic advantages to be derived from such a junction would be considerable. Local interests would obtain an immediate impetus, such as is afforded by the advent of any railway line where none has previously existed, and of which the Hellenic railway is an example. The surrounding districts especially would benefit, for the country around Gida has a rich soil, and if hitherto found unproductive it is simply owing to the heavy cost of transport. The introduction of the railway would likewise afford a favourable opportunity of exploiting the salt-mines of Kitros, as well as the dense forests which cover the eastern slopes of Mount Olympia.

Political relations would also improve. Athens linked to Constantinople by rail would bring about a different sentiment to that which exists now. Communication facilitated, friendly intercourse becomes easy. Prosperity engenders good feeling, and inter-communications improve diplomatic relations. Smuggling with all its evils would be checked, and general frontier expenses would be correspondingly reduced. Increased trade between the two countries, whilst benefiting them both, would go a long way towards removing the ill-feeling that at times has existed between the two nations.

There are, no doubt, other routes by which a junction with the Turkish railways might be compassed, but the line through the valley of the Tempe would not exceed a cost of some £500,000, while the cheapest alternative route is estimated to cost about £3,000,000. Besides the less heavy cost, it is to be noted that from Larissa to Salonica the length of line would be, by the Tempe Valley, 188 kilometres, and by the other route 239 kilometres. In regard to time required for the journey, whereas by using the first-described route it would be covered in four hours, the second-named, owing to the

nature of the ground to be traversed, would necessitate seven hours.

But apart altogether from the local advantages mentioned, the great importance of the line as a means of linking up the several systems of Europe is clearly to be seen. It would, in a word, complete the system of railways which has hitherto lacked a definite terminus in Southern Europe. Until now Greece has been enabled to maintain her connection with Europe only by the sea. From Marseilles, from Genoa, and from Trieste a four days' sea journey is necessary to reach



the Piræus; the nearest European port is Brindisi, and it takes two days to do the journey between that place and Patras. From the eastern side also it occupies between thirty and thirty-six hours, dependent greatly upon the weather, to make the Piræus from either Salonica or Constantinople. Once the railway is carried across the gap at present existing it will be possible to reach Athens without a change of carriage from either Paris, Vienna, Budapest, Belgrade, Sofia, or Constantinople; while the whole of Eastern and Western Europe would be brought within the network of railway. Whichever of these cities be the place of departure, the journey must in part be conducted over

a portion of the Ottoman railways, which would benefit accordingly.

For the western traffic coming from Nisch (Servia) this route would afford a run of 468 kilometres in Turkish territory, of which 330 would be between Zibeftsché and Salonica and 138 between Salonica and the frontier. From the eastern side the route from Constantinople and the frontier would afford a run of 979 kilometres, of which 841 would be between Constantinople and Salonica and 138 between Salonica and Karalik-Derven. The amount of traffic which would probably leave the sea route for the railway through Greece would bring to the Ottoman Empire lines traffics over a length of about 1,309 kilometres.

A question may be put as to the character of the freights which would become rail- instead of sea-borne, and this can be answered as follows :—

It is not to be supposed that heavy and cumbersome freights will undergo any change in their method of transportation; therefore these will continue to be sent by the sea route, which is in all cases the cheapest if not the most expeditious. But the mails, the great majority of passengers, and the quick-transit merchandise would undoubtedly take advantage of the easier and quicker mode of transportation, which would be available daily instead of weekly (sometimes even less frequently by sea), while weather conditions would have no place in their consideration. A number of passengers coming to Greece object to the long and sometimes trying voyage by sea, and there can be no question that were this drawback eliminated their number would be increased. There is also that ever-increasing horde of travellers who yearly wend their way to Egypt, there to pass the winter months, and who, were they enabled to reduce their sea journey of four days (between Marseilles and Port Said) to one of but thirty hours (between the Piræus and Alexandria), would probably increase tenfold. Thus there

would not only be an immediate traffic available, but the prospects of extension would be practically limitless.

In order to arrive at some accurate idea of what this future traffic would mean in the way of receipts for the Turkish systems, it is only necessary to observe the effect which the opening of the existing lines has had upon the kilometric receipts, say, during the last five years. These are as follows:—

	Increase per cent.
From Monastir to Salonica	70
„ Zibeftsché to Salonica	53
„ the junction between Salonica and Constantinople	48

CHAPTER XIX

Shipping—Greek mercantile marine—Development—No subsidies—Cost of construction—British shipping—Piræus—Port entries and departures—Ionian Islands—Entries and departures—Crete shipping—Decline of British bottoms—Cyclades shipping—Volo—Reduction of British shipping—Decline in coal imports—British sailing vessels ceased calling—Lighthouses and beacons—The Corinth Canal.

NO phase in the modern development of Greece has afforded ground for more surprise—and I may add admiration—than the advance in the mercantile marine. During the last twenty years the progress made has been phenomenal. The mercantile flag of Greece now flies at all the ports of the Ægean and the Mediterranean, and is competing vigorously with the fleets of Europe. The Piræus already ranks as third among the Mediterranean ports, whereas a score of years back it was little more than a mud village of fisher-folk. In practically all the harbours of the world the blue and white striped flag is now known. In 1896, Greek foreign commerce was valued at £7,560,000, while in 1905 it had increased to £9,000,000. In 1910 it amounted to £11,841,975. The number of Greek steamers increased from 107 in 1896 to 221 in 1905, and the gross tonnage from 86,000 to 250,000 tons. In 1910, the Greek merchant navy increased to 1,313, and the tonnage to 1,228,951. I know of no other country which can point to a record in any way comparable to this, taking into consideration the size of the State and the number of the population.

Mercantile Marine

The following statistical tables which I have prepared will, perhaps, do more than any comment to convince my readers of this remarkable advance in the Greek mercantile marine, the figures being taken from records placed at my disposal by the Ministry of Marine at Athens.

It must be remembered in reading these figures, however, that the Greek marine was only commenced in 1883, the number of steamers previous to that year being about fifty in all.

Year.	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.
1875	28	8,240
1883	50	24,160
1892	104	61,092
1898	144	96,358
1901	198	160,979
1903	210	202,140
1907	285	288,573
1911	343	387,634

The astonishing increase in both the number of the vessels and in the tonnage has been in no way due to any support from the Government of the country. Up till now Greek shipowners have set their faces sternly against the acceptance of bounties or subsidies in any form, believing that to do so would serve to strangle progress and competition, which is the life-blood of their enterprise. They have also had the unfortunate example of the French mercantile marine to assist them in their decisions; this latter has sensibly decreased since the system of bounties and premiums became customary among the owners. The Greek marine service was born and has since flourished without State aid, and it is desired to continue it under the same conditions. The marine has been built up entirely upon the energy and the enterprise of the owners and the mariners themselves, among whom the spirit of initiative is unmistakably strong.

The augmentation of shipping at the different ports of the kingdom between the years 1892 and 1911 may be traced by a study of the subjoined figures :—

	1892.		1898.		1904.		1907.		1911.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Piræus ...	34	11,171	67	39,048	98	79,971	141	112,495	160	140,883
Andros ...	5	5,826	8	9,391	21	31,908	34	59,588	50	86,573
Syra ...	26	13,333	33	19,082	56	48,564	66	59,223	74	83,397
Argostoli	17	14,367	18	15,865	14	17,155	24	35,400	26	42,851
Ithaca ...	16	14,476	13	9,389	11	16,154	13	18,981	17	28,227
Other Ports	5	1,245	6	2,119	6	4,929	7	2,886	16	5,683
	103	60,418	145	94,894	206	198,681	285	288,573	343	387,634

The steamers referred to above are vessels of between 2,000 and 7,000 tons, but recently one of 17,000 tons was constructed and launched from the yards of a British firm, and has been put into service between the Greek ports of Piræus and of North America. The vessel has been named the *Makedonia,* and it has a speed of 19 knots. Up till now it ranks as the largest steamer in the Greek mercantile marine.

All of these boats carry grain to the Russian and Danubian ports, thence proceeding to the Continent and the Mediterranean. Upon their return, they bring coal; and they earn for their owners profits amounting to between 15 and 20 per cent. During the Transvaal War, when Greek cargo boats were much in requisition for the transport of troops and horses, the profits earned and distributed were between 25 and 33 per cent. upon the capital represented. The amount of capital involved in the mercantile marine of Greece may be put conservatively at 126,000,000 dr., or, say, over £5,040,000.

The assurances effected upon Greek vessels at

Lloyd's, of London and Liverpool, amount to an annual premium of 12,500,000 dr., or, say, £500,000. An Hellenic Insurance Association has of late been formed, and promises to become an exceedingly powerful and successful undertaking. It has long been the desire of Greek shipowners to form such a society among themselves, but it is only since the general financial condition of the kingdom has become so satisfactory that this has been possible (see "Insurance," Chapter XI.).

The average price paid per ton by the owners of the Greek mercantile marine for construction between 1904 and 1907 worked out between £5 6s. and £6 10s.; and, availing themselves of the low prices, they built with great freedom. Latterly, however, the quotations have risen to between £6 10s. and £7 10s. per ton, and orders for new vessels have diminished considerably.

The principal ports are the Piræus, Patras, Syra (the Cyclades), Andros, Argostoli (Cephalonia), and Ithaca, and rank in much about the order named. Fully three-fifths of the entire shipping carried on is in connection with the Piræus, and the course of progress attained at this port over a number of years by Greek merchant shipping may be seen from the subjoined table:—

Year.	Steamships entering Port of Piræus.	Tonnage.	Greek Bottoms.	Tonnage.	Percentage of Greek Tonnage.
1901	2,018	2,187,939	674	650,940	29·7
1902	2,256	2,574,493	785	762,381	29·6
1903	2,556	2,873,066	866	880,980	30·6
1904	2,411	2,810,666	838	826,627	29·0
1905	2,451	2,845,045	959	868,519	30·5
1906	2,322	2,907,580	814	814,408	28·0
1907	2,711	3,276,263	1,134	1,017,583	31·0
1908	2,610	3,532,587	1,155	1,026,000	29·0
1909	2,663	3,593,679	1,246	1,095,427	30·5
1910	2,747	3,763,583	1,313	1,228,951	32·6
1911	2,709	3,695,644	1,300	1,200,000	29·8[1]

[1] The figures for 1911 are not to be considered complete and must be accepted as approximate only.

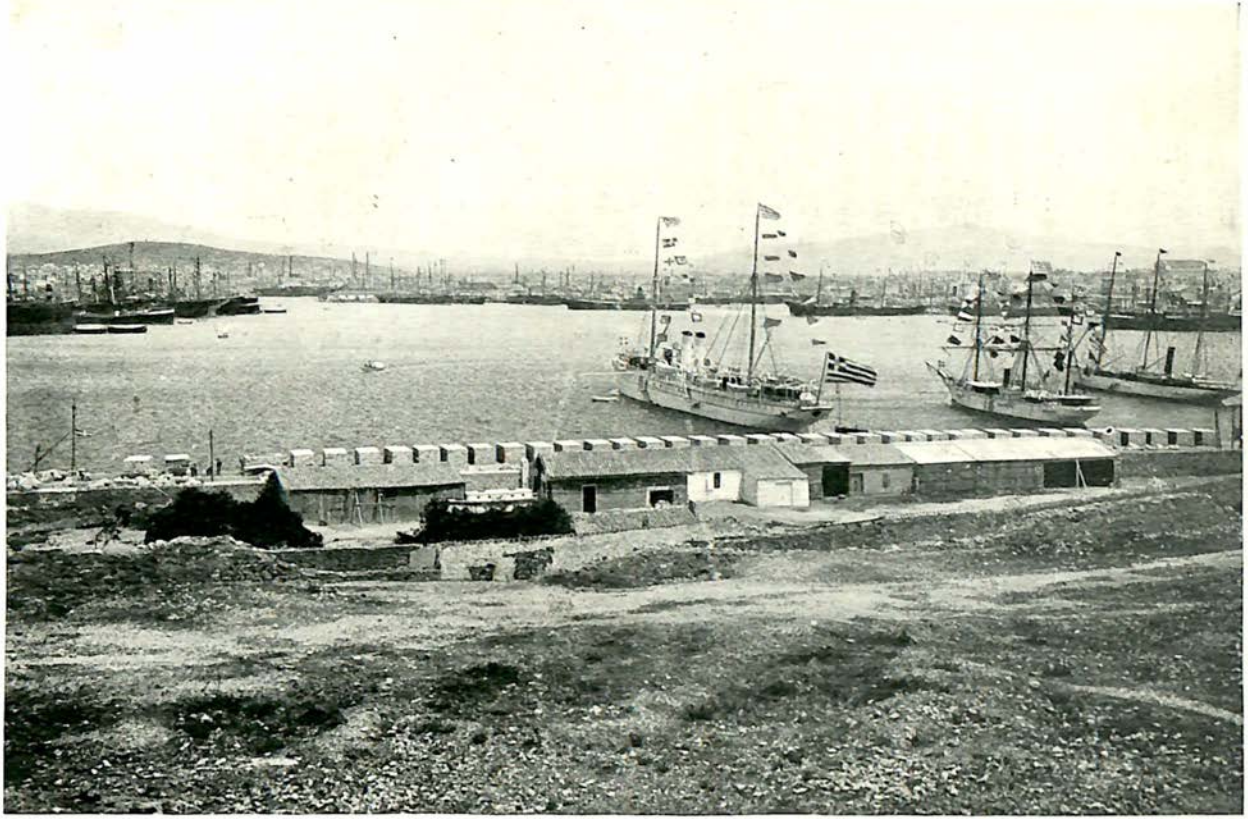
The extremely profitable nature of the Piræus shipping trade may be gathered from the experiences of one among the several native companies carrying on this enterprise. For the year 1910 the sum of nearly £90,000 was received for passenger fares, and a further £4,700 for freight, to the United States. After all expenses had been paid, a balance of £35,500 remained for distribution among the shareholders, or an equivalent of 40 per cent. upon each share of 100 dr. (£4).

Practically every kind of merchandise enters the port of Piræus, in contradistinction to specialities at such other ports as Patras, which ships mainly currants, or Argostoli (Cephalonia), which exports principally olives and wine. The exports from Piræus are largely composed of minerals, metallic lead, marble, and hematite iron ores.

The shipping for the year 1910 at the port of Piræus was split up among the various nations as follows :—

Nationality.	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
British	236	450,111	236	450,111
Russian	111	243,308	111	243,308
Dutch	48	83,283	47	80,964
German	174	300,197	174	300,197
Austro-Hungarian	346	645,388	346	645,388
French	149	288,567	149	288,567
Norwegian	11	6,207	11	6,207
Italian	310	468,674	310	468,674
Swedish	1	1,037	1	1,037
Belgian	11	16,360	11	16,360
Danish	11	15,907	11	15,907
Turkish	26	15,593	26	15,593
Greek	1,313	1,228,951	1,313	1,228,951

The extraordinary growth of the port and town of Piræus within, say, the last twenty-five years can be judged from the comparative figures which are available. At the present time out of some 350 steamers



SHIPPING AT THE PIRÆUS, SHOWING THE TOWN IN THE DISTANCE.

The most important seaport, entirely of modern growth. In 1880 it was a mere fishing village. To-day it possesses over 75,000 inhabitants.

(See p. 231.)

which comprise the mercantile navy of Greece, 160 at least belong to Piræus. There are 14 head offices of Greek steamship companies and 35 agencies of Greek and foreign steamship companies, and as many as 24 emigration agencies in the town.

As to industries, there are 17 steam-mills, 2 ship-yards, 1 ship-cleaning and repairing dock, 1 brewery, and 2 tanneries, as well as the following factories: 7 spinning-mills, 6 tissue weaving mills, 5 silk tissue mills, 5 mosaic factories, 8 kernet oil and soap factories, 5 confectionery, 4 needle and nail, and 1 printing-ink factories, 4 steam lithographic printing establishments, 2 electric power and gas works, 3 ice-making plants,

Countries.	Entered.		Countries.	Cleared.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.		Vessels.	Tonnage.
United Kingdom	26	47,141	United Kingdom	27	42,639
Italy	7	10,332	Italy	4	6,291
Greece	33	54,537	Greece	41	72,169
Austro-Hungary	6	9,509	Malta	3	5,104
Turkey	7	11,646	Turkey	2	2,789
Belgium ...	2	3,462	Canada	2	3,815
United States ...	1	1,492	Germany ...	2	3,462
Total ...	82	138,119	Total ...	81	136,269

2 furniture factories, 2 gunpowder, 1 brush, 1 small shot, and 1 match factories, as well as several chemical works, manufacturing antiseptic materials, ammonia, potash, colours, &c. It must be remembered that less than fifty years ago the Piræus was merely a squalid little fishing-village with about 200 inhabitants. To-day, it has between 70,000 and 75,000 inhabitants, and is the principal commercial centre of the Eastern Mediterranean.

After the Piræus, the port of Patras ranks as the most important, and here, again, considerable progress in shipping is to be recorded. From the returns which have been forwarded by the British Consul, Mr.

Frederick B. Wood, it seems that British shipping amounted to 26 out of a total of 82 vessels, and to a tonnage of 47,141 out of a total of 138,119 for the year 1910. The records of other countries doing trade with the Greek port of Patras are shown in table on page 231.

The importance of the Cyclades Islands from a British trade point of view is considerable, and the port of Syra—or Syros—upon the island of that name, is deemed to rank fourth in the shipping returns of the kingdom of Greece. Other ports of consequence in this interesting group are Andros and Tenos upon the island of Andros; Seriphos, upon the island of the same name; Santorin, on the island of Thera; Naxos, on the island of same name; and Amorgos, also on the island of same name.

The position of British shipping in relation to that of other countries trading with these islands can be seen from the accompanying tabular statement of the vessels entering and clearing the port of Syra during the year of 1910:—

Countries.	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
United Kingdom	58	97,612	9	15,388
Asia Minor	—	—	47	80,144
Greece	14	14,828	18	17,839
Turkey	6	6,751	12	20,552
Netherlands	—	—	11	22,985
Russia	14	26,213	11	20,940
France	2	2,480	6	8,662
Gibraltar	—	—	5	8,549
Italy	14	23,566	4	7,046
Germany	—	—	2	3,730
Roumania	16	28,449	2	1,856
Austria-Hungary	2	4,819	1	2,151
Algiers	—	—	1	1,730
Spain	1	1,834	—	—
Egypt	3	6,185	—	—
Total	130	212,737	129	211,572

Ionian Islands Shipping

The Ionian Islands likewise rank as of considerable moment in the trade between Greece and other countries, but unfortunately British shipping has not retained its once prominent place in the island trade. The returns for the year 1910 are as follows :—

BRITISH SHIPPING AT CORFU.

From	Entered.		To	Cleared.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.		Vessels.	Tonnage.
Malta	20	36,961	Patras	23	40,150
Cardiff	2	2,506	Sulina	1	1,253
Fiume	1	2,147	Alexandria ...	1	2,147
Naples	3	5,759	Cattano	2	4,648
Bari	2	3,184	Kustendje ...	1	1,253
Algiers	1	460	Catacalo ...	1	1,566
Total ...	29	51,017	Total ...	29	51,017

BRITISH SHIPPING AT ZANTE.

From	Entered.		To	Cleared.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.		Vessels.	Tonnage.
Greece	30	48,349	United Kingdom	14	22,513
Austria-Hungary	5	7,764	Greece	16	24,638
Turkey	3	4,019	Italy	4	6,235
			Spain	1	2,064
			Malta	1	1,353
Total ...	38	60,132	Total ...	36	56,803

COMPARATIVE TABLE OF BRITISH AND FOREIGN SHIPPING AT ZANTE FOR THE YEARS 1906 TO 1911, EXCLUSIVE OF REGULAR LINERS AND COASTING VESSELS.

Nationality.	1906.		1907.		1908.		1909.		1910.		1911.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
British	24	35,984	27	41,155	25	38,339	9	14,094	38	60,132	19	32,486
Austro-Hungarian ...	4	6,249	4	5,936	3	5,019	1	1,210	4	5,746	35	63,669
Belgian	2	2,277	1	1,246	3	4,607	6	7,214	7	7,782	3	3,401
Danish	3	2,566	—	—	1	810	—	—	—	—	—	—
German	3	4,590	5	5,652	4	6,266	—	—	5	8,427	—	—
Norwegian	1	1,045	—	—	—	—	1	751	1	998	1	667
Greek	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	9	13,587	3	1,417
Dutch	—	—	4	4,143	1	693	1	146	4	3,836	5	6,208
TOTAL TONNAGE :—												
British		35,984		41,155		38,339		14,094		60,132		32,486
Foreign		16,727		16,977		17,395		9,321		40,376		75,362
Total ...		52,711		58,132		55,734		23,415		100,508		107,848

ATHENS : PLACE DE LA CONCORDE.

A handsome square, planted with semi-tropical trees and flowers, forming a favourite rendezvous among Athenians.

(See p. 315.)

Shipping at Volo

SHIPPING OF ALL NATIONS AT ARGOSTOLI (CEPHALONIA) during 1910.

Nationality.	Steam.		Sailing.		Total.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Greek	5	7,908	5	835	10	8,743
German	6	9,950	—	—	6	9,950
Dutch	6	9,208	—	—	6	9,208
Hungarian	3	5,372	—	—	3	5,372
Austrian-Lloyd	52	61,217	—	—	52	61,217
Italian	—	—	11	1,090	11	1,090
Total ...	72	93,655	16	1,925	88	95,580

It will be observed that no British vessels either entered or cleared at this port, and, indeed, there is seldom seen any bottom flying the British flag. Whatever consignments the island has to transport to Great Britain proceed by Dutch boats and other vessels via Holland. In 1910 the whole of the island's shipping shrank very much, the number of vessels amounting to 72 as against 94 for 1909, and the tonnage to but 95,580 as against 115,254 for the previous twelve months. The figures for 1911 were as follows: Total number of vessels, 103 (84 being steam and 19 sailing), and a tonnage of 121,018.

The British ships entering and clearing the port of Volo are steadily declining in number. From 22—not in itself a very remarkable total—in 1908 the number fell to 19 in 1910 and to 13 in 1911. The returns are made up as follows :—

Countries of Origin.	Entered.		Countries of Destination.	Cleared.	
	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.		No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.
United Kingdom	6	8,938	Turkey	9	15,009
Belgium	4	7,764	Roumania ...	1	1,686
Italy	1	1,317	Russia	1	1,693
Roumania ...	1	1,178	Greece	1	1,178
United States ...	1	1,686	United States ...	1	1,378

Whereas the British steamers bring out all kinds of merchandise from Antwerp and Liverpool, and which vary neither in quality, character, nor very much in quantity from year to year—thus showing stagnation if not actual retrogression—they export almost entirely one kind of produce, namely, chrome ore, destined for the United States. The Johnston Line of Liverpool are the most regular callers at Volo, but coalers also come here. The coal which enters Thessaly all emanates from Newcastle and Cardiff, but the amount has fallen off considerably of late years, from 19,137 tons in 1908 to 8,552 tons in 1910. Bad trade and the boycott of Greek shipping are mainly responsible. There have been no British sailing vessels seen at Volo for the years 1909, 1910, and 1911.

The island of Crete has four principal ports, namely, Canea, Suda, Rethymo, and Candia. Unfortunately, Great Britain is hardly represented at all in the shipping at any of these ports, as may be seen from the following statistics :—

STEAM VESSELS ENTERING AND CLEARING AT CANEA, 1910.

Nationality.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
British	1	1,388
Austro-Hungarian	93	190,283
Italian	139	245,687
Greek	326	127,215
Turkish	49	6,274
Russian	1	666
Total	609	571,513

Out of the sailing vessels which entered, again British shipping was represented by 1 ship only, with a tonnage of 84, as against 16 Turkish (tonnage, 1,478), 16 Greek (tonnage, 1,868), and 4 Italian (tonnage, 488).

Shipping in Crete

At the port of Suda, where the British warships have always harboured, and where some of H.M. ships are stationed at present, there entered for the same period (1910) but 4 British steam vessels with a tonnage of 5,520, as against 23 Russian (tonnage, 51,376), 20 Greek (tonnage, 8,670), 11 Turkish (tonnage, 2,648), 10 Italian (tonnage, 17,054), and 9 Austro-Hungarian (tonnage, 14,019). The only flag less well represented than ours was that of France.

The sailing vessels calling at Suda were very few, only 4 being entered for the whole twelvemonth. Of these 2 were Italian, 1 was Turkish, and the other Greek. The total tonnage represented was but 651.

The port of Rethymo is an important one for Greek steam vessels, the number calling there annually amounting to between 300 and 400. The tonnage represented exceeds 300,000 tons, while in regard to sailing vessels between 150 and 200 usually call there, but not one British bottom is to be found among them.

At Candia the British flag is slightly more *en evidence*; the following statistics for 1911 show that 7 steamers out of 504 and 3 sailing vessels out of 682 were British.

Nationality.	Steamers.		Vessels.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
British	7	7,009	3	377
German	10	17,256	—	—
Austrian	98	196,367	—	—
Greek	349	128,791	52	5,110
Italian	33	47,058	19	672
Turkish	6	1,241	605	7,241
Danish	1	1,300	—	—
Ionian	—	—	3	170
Total	504	399,022	682	13,570

With its remarkable length of coastline, it is only natural that there should be a considerable number of lighthouses and signal-lights in Greece. Of the first named there are 71, distributed as follows: In the province of Corfu, 3, at the ports of Othoni, Peristerai, and Corfu; in the province of Paxi, 4, at the ports of Lacca, Panaghia, Antipaxi, and Coprena; in the province of Leucade, 2, at the ports of Leucade and Doucaton; in the province of Cephalonia, 3, at the ports of Fiscardo, Vardiani, and Yerogombo; in the province of Zante, 3, at the ports of Skynario, Cryonéri, and Strophades.

In the Gulf of Patras there are 5 lighthouses, namely, those at Oxia, Cafcalida, Araxos, Haghios Sostis, and Patras. In the Gulf of Corinth there are 3, at Stepanon, Psaromyta, and Malagabi. In the Gulf of Kyparissia there are 2, at Katakolo and Inoussai. In the Gulf of Messenia there are 2, at Kitrai and Tenaron (Matapan); and one in the Gulf of Laconia, at Gythion.

The Archipelago is well provisioned with lighthouses, these being located in the Gulf of Argolis, Saronic, Eubœa, Maliaque, Pagassetique, Sporades, and the Cyclades.

There are 65 different signal-lights distributed about the coast, mainly in the Ionian Sea, the Sporailes, and along the Gulf of Patras, Kyparissia, and Messina.

There have recently been completed and erected by a British firm (Messrs. J. W. Brooke & Co., Ltd., of Lowestoft) six searchlight sets, each consisting of a 25-horse-power 6-cylinder Brooke marine motor, complete with reverse gear, a swivelling automatic marine type searchlight, and a 4-horse-power Brooke generating plant, the motor being mounted upon a cast-iron bed-plate, and direct coupled to a Crompton dynamo giving 25 amperes at 70 volts. These sets have been fitted to half a dozen Greek revenue cutters such as are used for Customs examination and contraband searches. The reverse plant has a projection of

THE CORINTH CANAL.

1. The Adriatic entrance. 2. The Ægean entrance. Depth, 26 ft. 3 in. Width at bottom, 68 ft. 11 in.; at sea surface, 80 ft. 8⅝ in. Total length 3 miles (4,830 ft.)

(See p. 239.)

[To face p. 239.

70 metres, and the cutter-men are already very skilful in their handling of the apparatus.

All of these are under the direction of the Ministry of Marine, a department which had hitherto been conducted by the President of the Council and Prime Minister, M. Vénizélos, in conjunction with the Ministry of War. In the spring (1912) it was found necessary, however, to relieve the President of the Council of at least one of these responsible positions, which he had, nevertheless, carried on with conspicuous ability.

The first impressions of the Corinth Canal are decidedly those of disappointment. Seen from the railway-bridge, the canal looks very much like a deep but not a very wide ditch; but when passing through it these ideas are considerably modified. The canal was cut across the Isthmus of Corinth in 1881-93, and it cost 60,000,000 dr. (£2,400,000). It connects the Gulf of Corinth with the Saronic Gulf, and thus shortens the journey from the Adriatic Sea and the ports of Austria, France, and Italy to the Ægean Sea and the ports of Turkey, Roumania, Russia, and Asia Minor. The subjoined table shows the advantage resulting to vessels by making use of the canal:—

Route Followed.	Round the Cape Matapan.	Through the Canal.	Difference in Favour of Canal.
	Sea Miles.	Sea Miles.	Sea Miles.
From the Straits of Messina to the Piræus	477	403	74
„ Brindisi to the Piræus ...	464	333	131
„ Corfu	370	237	133
„ Patras	295	100	195
„ the Straits of Messina to Cape Sunium (Cape Colonna)	463	428	35
„ Brindisi to Cape Sunium	450	358	92
„ Corfu	355	262	93

The total length of the canal is 6,300 metres, say, 3 statute miles and 1,610 yards, of which 540 metres

(590 yards) form the ports of Isthmia and Poseidania. Of the remainder, 3,900 metres (4,267 yards) are faced with masonry, with a slope of 22½ per cent., and the other 1,850 metres (2,025 yards) have no masonry, the natural slope of the ground being irregular. The part of the canal which is faced with masonry has a breadth of 21 metres (69 feet) at the bottom of the sea, and 24·60 metres (81 feet) at the water-line. The portion without masonry has a breadth of 22 metres (72 feet) at the bottom of the sea, increasing to 24·25 metres near the surface of the water, and attaining 50-70 metres at the water-line. Vessels, therefore, must keep always in the axis of the canal.

The Government is now considering the proposal of an American engineer, who offers to apply steam-engines on land to tow ships through the canal without increasing its present width.

The railway track (Piræus, Athens, and Peloponnesus line) crosses the canal upon a trestle iron bridge, 80 metres (262 feet) in length, at a height of 44 metres (144 feet), thus enabling ships to pass underneath freely without lowering their masts. At night the canal is lighted by 20 candle-power incandescent electric lamps, placed in pairs and facing each other on either side, at a distance of about 200 metres (655 feet). Electric light standards are also erected at both entrances, and are visible from a distance of 6 miles. Over 3,000 steamers and sailing vessels pass through the canal every year, the largest vessel, I believe, having been the battleship *Stromboli* (Italian), having a length of 283 feet, a breadth of 43·5 feet, and a depth of 19 feet; the net tonnage of this vessel is 3,470.

The following additional details may also be of some interest:—

Depth of the canal, 26 ft. 3 in.; width at the bottom, 68 ft. 11 in.; width at the sea surface, 80 ft. 8⅝ in.; total length, 3 miles 4,830 ft. Height from the sea surface to the lower surface of the principal beams of the railway bridge, 14 ft. 4 in.

CHAPTER XX

Agriculture—Wheat importations—Prices—Cost of cultivation—Peasant proprietors—Labour—Rates of wages—Barley—Mode of cultivation—Profits earned—Production table from seed—Cattle-breeding—Cows—Diseases—Pig-breeding—Profits derived—Sheep—Lambs—Cost and profit of breeding—Goats—Horse-breeding—Camels—Donkeys—Agricultural implements—Farm labour—Rates of wages—Agricultural schools and stations.

ALTHOUGH considerable quantities of wheat are grown in Greece, especially in Thessaly, which may one day become the granary of the country, and in Peloponnesus, several of the provinces producing sufficient to supply the local demand, it will be many a long day before the State can do without foreign importations of grain. The demand for this year (1912-13) alone will probably exceed a value of £1,200,000. The principal sources of supply are Russia, Bulgaria, and occasionally from the United States of America. The following figures show the importations for 1909-10 and for the first two months (the latest returns to hand) of 1911.

Countries.	1909.		1910.		1911. (2 months).	
	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.
		£		£		
All Greece ...	194,566	1,173,815	229,627	1,515,534	5,000	—
Patras district	35,086	234,385	(*a*)	(*a*)		
Russia ...	160,669	967,262	197,366	1,302,617	—	—
Bulgaria ...	20,913	131,976	30,181	199,195	—	—
U. States ...	11,698	70,436	(*a*)	(*a*)	—	—

(*a*) No figures available.

The prices for imported wheat may be given as follows: Soft grades, landed at Patras, c.i.f., 4s. 3d. to 4s. 5d. per bushel of 60 lbs.; hard (Bulgarian), 4s. 7½d. per bushel; hard (Russian or Turkish), 4s. 10d. to 4s. 11½d. per bushel. These prices are exceptionally high, the average ruling for the previous few years being between 3s. 8d. and 3s. 10d. per bushel. About 22,000 tons of foreign-grown grain are imported annually, almost entirely through the port of Patras. There is an import duty to meet of £2 9s. 6d. per ton of 2,000 lbs. upon grain, but as £4 8s. duty is charged upon imported flour there is practically no trade done in this commodity.

Encouraged thus by the heavy importation duties upon wheat, it is not surprising to find a considerable amount of local enterprise being devoted to grain cultivation. In regard to the raising of wheat in the district of Lamia, in the Department of Phthyotis, the experience of a landed proprietor, ranging over a number of years, may prove of interest.

The expenses in connection with every bushel of seed sown are as follows:—

	Dr.
Cost of labour of cultivation	10
Value of seed	9
Reaping	4
Cartage of wheat to threshing-floor	2
Cost of threshing	2.10
Cartage from grain to storehouse	0.60
Government tax on working oxen	1.00
Or, a total of	28.70

Against the above expenditure, if one can reckon the normal yield to be five bushels of grain to every bushel of wheat-seed sown, at a fair average price of 7 dr. per bushel, the turnover would amount to 35 dr., out of which, after deducting all expenses, 6.30 dr., or a little of 20 per cent., may be taken as net profit. This would, however, be considered but a poor return;

and cultivators usually depend upon obtaining a yield of from six to eight bushels of grain for every bushel of seed sown. Two and a half bushels of wheat are usually sown to the acre.

Leaving out the consideration of rental, which cannot with any accuracy be estimated on account of the variation existing both in regard to the intrinsic value of the land and the rentals charged, the yield upon the above basis should be 6.30 dr. per bushel of seed sown.

In regard to the peasant proprietor, or the smallholder, who as a general rule sows about forty bushels of seed, the outlay necessary may be estimated as under :—

	Dr.
Labour for cultivation	300
Reaping	160
Cartage to threshing-floor and thence to storehouse...	45
Cost of threshing	112
Government tax on oxen	86
Total	703

Value of seed to be deducted from turnover.

Calculating the turnover upon the same basis as in the case of the landed proprietor, the smallholder, for the 40 bushels of seed he sows, would obtain a yield of 200 bushels of grain, out of which, after keeping 40 bushels in hand for seed to be sown in the following year, he would sell 160 bushels at, say, 7 dr. per bushel, thus gaining a return of 1,120 dr. From this latter sum, if he deducts the expenses as set forth above of 703 dr., 417 dr. would be left as net profit. That would represent, however, only a part of his annual labour, about 90 or 100 days being taken up out of the 365 in attending to the production of wheat; while the average peasant owner also engages in the cultivation of maize and tobacco, which materially add to his yearly profits.

A peasant tenant might make the above profits, less

one-third, which he usually pays over in kind to the landlord as rental.

Wheat is sown generally after the first rains in autumn. Sometimes it happens that farmers are forced to sow without any rain having fallen, as they cannot afford to wait for it; but in many instances when this delay occurs the weeds spring up with the wheat, and very often they succeed in choking it. The best time for sowing is thought to be about the end of September, allowing fully a fortnight to pass after the coming of the rain. This gives the weeds time to spring up, after which they are ploughed down and the wheat is sown. The various cereals are grown in the following order: barley, wheat, oats.

In this district (Lamia) labour is always very scarce, owing to the large amount of emigration which goes on; and, indeed, so serious has this become that many landowners have expressed their determination to discontinue the cultivation of their properties and to turn their lands into pastures. In Thessaly this is also declared to be the case.

Day labourers for farmwork are unknown, the usual arrangement entered into being six-monthly agreements or twelve-monthly engagements, at a monthly wage of between 30 and 40 dr. plus food and lodging, except during the reaping season, when a reaper is paid a daily wage of about 4 dr. a day and is given his food.

In Thessaly the wage amounts to 7 dr. per diem. Women workers are engaged by the day, and receive 1.20 dr. per diem during the winter or slack season, while in summer or harvesting season they often earn as much as between 3 and 4 dr. There is very little child labour employed. Every day labourer during the harvesting season receives his or her food.

The food of a farmhand consists generally of coarse bread and cheese of lambs' milk during the day, with meat occasionally; beans and some cooked food are served at night. Each labourer is likewise given a

daily allowance of *chipuro*, a very fiery kind of liquor made from the refuse of the winepress, and absolutely repellent to European taste.

Barley is a crop which is grown by nearly all Greek farmers, and, as a matter of fact, it is considered a far safer crop to cultivate than either wheat or maize. It generally yields more grain to the bushel of seed sown than wheat; sometimes the yield amounts to double the amount. Although the prices obtained for barley are generally low when compared with the amounts realised for wheat, the harvesting expenses of the former cereal are considerably less, since the grain matures nearly three weeks earlier than wheat, while the labour is much cheaper. A good average price for barley is 3.50 dr.; the price has been known to fall as low as 2.30 dr., while it has at other times risen above 4 dr. per bushel; the retail price in winter has been higher than 5 dr. The weight of barley per bushel is 19 okes.

In the district of Lamia, which may be regarded as typical of Greece for this product, oats are only grown by farmers for their own use, very little of this cereal being sold. The price obtained is generally about the same as that of barley. Oats weigh 15 okes to the bushel.

The best soil for growing maize is a light sandy one, particularly the alluvial soil which is so freely found in the district of Lamia. The seed is generally sown at the end of May, and the harvest is reaped after from 110 to 120 days; the harvesting expenses work out at about 1 dr. a bushel. The weight of a bushel of maize or Indian corn is about the same as that of wheat—namely, 22 okes—and the price obtained is usually between 3.50 dr. and 5 dr. per bushel. After the maize has been reaped and gleaned, the alluvial fields, without any further preparation, are sown with either wheat or barley.

The subjoined figures show the quantity of seed

sown in one year in the agricultural Department of Thessaly, and the quantity of the crops obtained therefrom in the following :—

Crop.	Sown in 1909.	Harvested in 1910.
Wheat	Bushels 533,994	Bushels 2,289,624
Barley	„ 154,319	„ 724,474
Oats	„ 31,645	„ 269,726
Rye	„ 10,099	„ 35,559
Maize...	„ 38,951	„ 457,365
Lentils	„ 2,225	„ 11,457
Potatoes	Acres planted (in 7,511	„ 48,741
Tobacco	„ 1910) 13,727	Cwts. 85,390
Cotton	„ 761	„ 3,381
Rice	„ 525	„ 3,200
Olives	—	„ 51,287

Cattle-rearing in Greece is carried on by nearly all peasants, and, moreover, in a manner totally different from that of any country with which I am acquainted. Except in the case of extensive proprietors, of whom there are very few to be found in the country, the cattle in the districts are owned conjointly, and are tended by at least two common herdsmen, selected from among the "syndicate" of proprietors, and whose wages are paid by the community.

During the daytime in winter the cattle are taken to the plains, marshes, or uncultivated lands, and are there permitted to graze ; while at dusk they are rounded up in a slow and perfunctory manner and driven back to the villages, on reaching which the herd disperses, each animal being permitted to find its way to its own stable, which it does with remarkable precision, and where it is secured for the night, after being merely given a feed of chopped straw.

During the summer months the cattle remain out day and night, and are allowed to feed upon the stubble in the fields.

The yield to the proprietor is generally one calf

a year for every cow. Calves are commonly sold at the age of five months, about 60 dr. being the average price obtained. A good cow native bred costs about 120 dr. (£4 16s.). No attempt is made by the peasant owners to milk the cows for dairy purposes, since the calves need all the meagre sustenance which the cows can provide. Animals are rarely disposed of to the butcher, but occasionally an old cow will be sold for meat, and then it will fetch about 80 dr. Worn-out working oxen are generally used for butcher's meat, and the price received is about 180 dr. per head.

Disease among cattle cannot be said to be very prevalent, but, of course, to a small extent the usual ailments from which cattle suffer are to be met with. The most serious epidemics one hears of are the foot-and-mouth disease and anthrax. About 5 per cent. of the deaths occurring among cattle are said to be due to the latter complaint, which at times proves very virulent. Young calves are but rarely affected by anthrax. On the other hand, they suffer not infrequently from a severe form of foot-and-mouth disease, which assumes the same form as in our own country—namely, an eruptive fever, marked by blisters in the mouth and sores on the feet. It is highly contagious and spreads from one village to another, since little or no trouble is taken by the peasants to prevent it. This dangerous disease only made its appearance quite recently in Greece—that is to say, some two years ago. It was observed upon a farm for the first time in the district of Lamia.

Pig-rearing is largely in the hands of the peasants, who feed the animals on maize which has become worm-eaten or otherwise unsaleable; but when acorns are plentiful the peasants will take their pigs up on the mountains and there allow them to feed upon the acorns which fall from the short native oaks and are abundant. Latterly some attempts have been made to improve the breed, and Yorkshire pigs, as well as the descen-

dants of English stock imported from Malta, have been introduced into several districts, where they have been crossed with the native stock with comparatively successful results. It is this native cross-breed which is found to be the best variety for fattening purposes.

The wholesale price for a good porker averages about 1.40 to 1.80 dr. per oke, while sucking-pigs fetch about 10 dr. and a sow porkling about 7 dr. per oke. In connection with the latter, it may be mentioned that whereas in England sucking-pigs are killed when twenty days old, in Greece they are not handed to the butcher until after they have completed one month.

The sheep of Greece are of two kinds—namely, the mountain-sheep, which is a small but compact animal, and the plain-sheep. The latter may again be divided into two separate classes: (1) the long wool, and (2) the curly wool; the last-named is to be found only in Thessaly.

No attempts have been made to improve either the quality of the sheep or the fineness of the wool. Neither has any desire been shown to introduce foreign breeds. Sheep-dipping has also been very little observed except upon the estate of Mr. Sydney Merlin at Megaly Brisis, where an up-to-date dipping trough has been erected with very marked success.

Shearing-machines are unknown, all clipping being done by hand. The shearing season commences about the beginning of May, and it lasts but a very short while. Extra labour is not engaged for the purpose of sheep-shearing, since neighbours render one another assistance in turn, no remuneration being given beyond the daily food and drink. The prices realised for wool ranges from 1.40 to 1.80 dr. per oke,[1] the black variety being the cheaper. The quality compares very unfavourably with such brands as English rivals—South-

[1] 1 oke = 400 drams = 2·8 lbs.

TYPES OF GREEK WOMEN FROM THE MAINLAND AND ISLANDS.
The costumes shown are worn only upon festivals and high holidays

down, Leicester, Lincoln, or Cheviot. It is more like Mungo or shoddy.

The lambing season usually extends from November to March, according to the particular district of the country; and in connection with this the number of deaths which occur from various causes is estimated at about 12 per cent. All the diseases which are common to sheep—scab, perhaps, alone excepted—are to be met with in Greece, but the most common and deadly are anthrax, foot-and-mouth disease, and "fluke" or liver-rot.

That sheep-rearing, even as carried on, is a profitable industry can be seen from the following figures, which may be taken as a very fair estimate of the return from an average flock of sheep consisting of about 300 head (this being the usual number), and which represent a capital value of 6,600 dr. (£264):—

PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT OF A FLOCK (300) OF SHEEP FOR ONE YEAR.

Receipts.	Dr.	Expenditure.	Dr.
By sale of milk	2,050	To shepherds' wages and occasional labour ...	1,500
„ „ „ wool	480	„ rents paid for pastures: In winter ...	1,500
„ „ „ lambs	4,000	In summer and autumn ...	450
		„ losses through death, less the value of skins sold	650
		„ expenses of replacement	350
		„ cost of maintenance of rams	50
		„ medicines and extras...	59
			4,550
		Balance b/d ...	1,980
Total	6,530	Total	6,530

Large herds of goats are met with in practically all parts of Greece, especially in the mountainous districts, where the animals occasion a great deal of damage by grazing upon the tender young shoots of trees and shrubs. Here, again, no attempt has been made to improve the native breed, and most of the goats and kids which one sees are extremely poor specimens of their tribe.

Goats are moderately cheap, prices which they fetch generally ranging from 20 to 25 dr. for a castrated billy-goat and from 13 to 15 dr. for a nanny-goat, while kids may be purchased for about 3 or 4 dr. Many thousands of the latter are as a rule killed for butcher's meat when about ten days old.

Horse-breeding is carried on in much the same way as cattle-raising—that is to say, without any kind of system. Latterly, however, the Government has devoted some attention to the matter, and as a preliminary it has purchased a number of animals of the Arab strain for stud purposes, and these are now being sent to serve the mares in certain selected districts. In the province of Phthyotis a native horse costs from 300 to 500 dr., and on an average it will work until about sixteen years old.

A mule costs from 400 to 700 dr., and will usually work, and work well, for a period of twenty years; in some instances mules bred in the country have been known to work for twenty-five years.

Up to about ten years ago camels were much used for transport purposes, but since the advent of the railway and the great improvement of the main roads these animals have gradually disappeared; to-day it is doubtful whether there are more than ten camels left in the district of Lamia, where at one time there were constantly at work some 150. The price of a camel was formerly about 1,000 dr., but as there is now so little call for its services purchasers are extremely hard to meet with, and, in fact, a certain owner with whom

I came in contact, and who was the proprietor of no fewer than ten camels, had repeatedly offered his stock at the knockdown price of 300 dr. per head, but had found it impossible to dispose of even one of his herd.

The donkeys of this country, although numerous and much in request, are very small. Of late years some efforts have been made to improve the breed by importing animals from Cyprus and Italy. The average price paid is from 100 to 180 dr. The usual number of years that a donkey will stay at work is about twenty. These animals are mainly used as pack animals, and one rarely sees them in draft. Shaggy, dirty, and as a rule cruelly neglected so far as food is concerned, these little creatures, with their patient, pleading eyes and sorrowful appearance, may be met with all over Greece, and especially in the Ionian Islands, where they work continually as carriers of all kinds of merchandise, building material, and foodstuffs.

Most of the agricultural implements in Greece, such as ploughs, &c., are made in one particular district in Thessaly—namely, at Volo—being copied from foreign designs. They are of fairly good quality and moderately priced. On the other hand, a great deal of British machinery is used, such as threshing-machines, &c., the makers most favoured being Messrs. Marshall, Sons & Co., Ltd., of Gainsborough; Messrs. Ransomes, Sims & Jefferies, Ltd., of Ipswich; Messrs. Ruston, Proctor & Co., Ltd., of Lincoln; and Messrs. John Fowler & Co., Ltd., of Leeds.

In some parts of the country the primitive wooden plough is still used, and although attempts have been made to introduce better implements, it is not a little difficult to bring home to the peasant the fact that the modern iron plough is superior to the implement to which he is accustomed, and which is probably an heirloom in his family. But he is learning gradually.

Farm labourers receive a wage of about 40 dr. per month, as well as their food and lodging. Shepherds

are paid at the rate of about 45 dr. per month, or, if food be provided, from 30 to 35 dr. Many of the latter are Wallachians—wild, brutal-looking fellows, who are usually accompanied by immense fierce dogs which must be carefully watched, since they are as fearless as they are ferocious. Many an unwary traveller has found this out to his cost.

The Government maintains, under the control of the Ministry of the Interior, eight agricultural stations—namely, those established in Attica, Patras, Vytina, Elis, Corfu, Missolonghi, and Livadia. At each of these are found a number of men engaged carrying out experimental agricultural work of some kind. At the Attica station there is established a Chemical Laboratory. The Agricultural School, maintained by the State, the "Cassavétios," at Alnyros, has three instructors, and usually some thirty-two to thirty-five pupils. There is a similar establishment at Larissa, known as the "Averofios," which was founded and is maintained by the bequest of the late M. George Avéroff. The school at Athens is a branch of the Academy of Commerce and Industry. In regard to model farms, there are two which depend upon Government support—namely, those at Trichonis (Agrinion) and at Astros, a place which is situated about four miles from Myli; and two private enterprises, one belonging to the Agricultural Society of Chalandri and the other to the Academy of Commerce and Industry at Pychro.

CHAPTER XXI

Agriculture (*continued*)—Thessalian landowners—Production of Department—Olives—Exports—Methods of manufacture—Wine—Annual output—Cephalonia brands—Tobacco—Exports—Process of manufacture—Prices—Cotton cultivation—Progress attained—Government support—Sales effected—Future of industry—Thessalian crops and prices realised—Lake Copais Company—Sericulture.

MENTION has already been made of the vast agricultural estates to be found in Thessaly, in which portion of the kingdom the agrarian question has long become acute. Many of the large landowners have agreed to break up their holdings if they can obtain fair prices from purchasers, while the peasants, on the other hand, will avail themselves of the opportunities afforded if the Government can finance them. To this end the Department of Agriculture will shortly undertake a large and wide-spreading scheme, to assist which La Caisse de la Thessali—a financial institution under Government control—has already been formed. By these means *bona-fide* peasants will be enabled to acquire lots by instalments, and it is estimated that at the end of twenty-five or thirty years the capital advanced will be repaid.

Among the large landowners, M. G. Christaki-Zographos stands easily first, and as I had an opportunity of visiting his estate and of going over it, besides enjoying the privilege of an interview with its proprietor relative to its capacity of further development, I choose this as an instance of the several large landed estates to

be found in this part of Greece which are destined to play so important a part in its future agricultural and economic expansion.

One part of M. Zographos' Lazarina property, situated on the right bank of the river Pamisos, consists of: (1) Four villages named Mainomati, Ghilanthi, Charmena, and Cappa, having a total area of approximately 1,150 hectares. The population of these villages amounts to 2,000 inhabitants, including 120 families of "Metayers," *i.e.*, farmers who hold their land on a system of paying a certain proportion of the products to the owners in kind. The owner takes one-third of the produce, but he pays nothing towards the cost of cultivation or for the labour. He contributes merely one-third of the land-tax.

The annual income from these four properties, taken together, has averaged during the last eight years 39,000 dr. (say, £1,560). There is also a wooded mountain, from which there is derived no revenue, and which has an area of 1,200 hectares, and an area of about 850 hectares which bears the name of Zographie, and this is exploited by the owners, who cultivate it for themselves. Thus the total area of this one estate is 3,200 hectares, or, say, 8,000 acres.

On this part of the property stands a sugar factory, the only one that exists—or rather which existed—in Greece, since the Government in the year 1909 bought and closed it down.

On the left bank of the river is situated the estate of Lazarina, which has an area of about 920 hectares. This portion of the property is cultivated entirely by the owners.

Part of these estates, Zographie and Lazarina, 1,700 to 1,800 hectares in extent and consisting of magnificent alluvial soil, are about to be sold, and an unrivalled opportunity for some British company or small syndicate to acquire the property undoubtedly presents itself. Some millions of drachmæ and many

years of constant effort have been spent upon the property in order to put it into a condition of value—to clear the land, to dig, trench, and drain it, and to put the whole under irrigation.

THE AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION IN THESSALY.

(DURING 1909–10.)

Produce.	Weight in Okes (1 oke = 2·828 lbs.)	Average Market Price.	Annual Value in Drachmæ. (1 dr. = 10d.)
Wheat	45,792,480	0·33	15,111,519
Barley	13,040,532	0·20	2,608,106
Oats	3,776,164	0·20	755,232
Rye...	746,739	0·22	164,282
Beans (broad) ...	315,354	0·40	126,141
Vetch	3,763,760	0·22	828,027
Linseed	528,400	0·20	105,680
Maize	9,147,300	0·22	2,012,406
Chickseed	465,740	0·30	139,722
Lentils	206,226	0·50	103,113
Sesame	854,828	0·70	598,379
Beans (haricot) ...	2,431,002	0·40	972,400
Aniseed	30,080	0·80	24,064
Tobacco	3,415,600	3·00	10,246,800
Potatoes	1,949,650	0·15	292,447
Cotton	135,260	1·50	202,890
Rice	128,000	0·50	64,000
Olives	2,051,500	0·50	1,025,750
Olive-oil	1,141,800	1·50	1,717,700
	Total value		37,098,658

Of the three-and-thirty different kinds of olives which exist, fully thirty are to be found in Greece. Here the fruit—drupaceous, fleshy, and bitter to the taste—may be found in practically every part of the country, and in almost every variety. In the Homeric world—as mentioned in the Iliad—the oil was known as a luxury of the wealthy. To-day every Greek drinks of it, and indeed, with the fruit itself, it forms his principal article of diet. Was it not known in the garden of Alcinous, when Poseidon and Athene contended for the future

city of Attica, did not an olive-tree spring from the barren wall at the bidding of the titular goddess? When the crop of olives failed did not the Greeks of old appeal to the Delphic oracle, which advised them to erect statues to Damia and Auxesia, the symbols of fertility? The Cretans have a saying still extant—"Every Cretan his own olive-tree—if only to hang himself upon."

I have seen the olive growing in parts of France, in Italy, and in Spain, and throughout the Mediterranean lands, where the fruit has been much cultivated in modern times; in Mexico, where it was first introduced by the Jesuits in the seventeenth century; in California, where the production is increasing both in quantity and quality; and even in China and Australia, but nowhere has the tree been found in better condition than in Greece. And this is the more remarkable considering the small amount of care which the people devote to the cultivation and preservation of the trees, and the primitive manner in which they collect the fruit—beating the branches with long bamboos, afterwards picking up the bruised berries from the ground.

The amount of oil contained in the Greek fruit varies according to the particular species of tree, the manner of collecting it, the kind of soil, and the time of the year. The pericarp usually yields between 60 and 70 per cent. Upon rich soil the plant suffers from disease, and the oil is inferior, but on dry, clayey, but well-drained soil it produces much better quality and much larger quantity of oil. Disease, as a rule, is not prevalent among the olive-trees in Greece, but it has occurred, and probably will occur again, as the peasants take so little trouble to prevent it.

It may prove interesting to note how the export trade in Greek olives has prospered during the past few years, and for this purpose we may take the period of years between 1907 and 1910 inclusive; it may, however, be observed at the outset that the figures

of this quadriennium apply to export only, and take no cognisance of the immense number of olives and the quantities of oil which are consumed in the kingdom itself.

Articles.	1907.	1908.	1909.	1910.
	£	£	£	£
Olives	136,380	146,480	109,280	197,600
Olive-oil	260,680	524,440	76,240	501,400

What became of all this production? So far as the olives are concerned the distribution of the output was mainly to Egypt, and as to the oil, it went principally to Italy. The precise export trade was as follows :—

Article = Olives.	1908.	1909.	1910.
	£	£	£
Egypt	28,655	20,521	27,445
United States	28,200	35,590	69,225
Turkey	27,412	16,619	12,375
France	14,890	6,933	9,240
Russia	23,958	12,734	33,119
Roumania	10,755	7,173	20,697
Article = Olive-oil.			
Italy	173,144	18,247	267,255
France	131,307	5,104	68,225
Austria	90,403	12,522	19,006
United States	14,788	16,173	17,780
Russia	42,390	7,120	46,706
Turkey	18,239	6,047	4,251

For the present year, 1912, the olive crop of the whole country will probably be one of the largest yet gathered. At Corfu it was pronounced "already excellent" by the many different vineyard proprietors with whom I discussed the subject. The same encouraging accounts reached me during my stay in the other Ionian islands. The estimated yield from Corfu and the islands of Zante and Cephalonia was from 200,000 to 250,000 barrels of oil, each of 65 kilogrammes.

In regard to price it was expected that as much as 55 to 65 dr. per barrel would be received in advance of the last prices realised. During the past two years Corfu alone produced 7,349 quintals of oil, and 45,126 quintals of olives for the table. At Kalamata the output will surpass that of the previous year, while the quality produced will also be far superior. It is expected that the yield will amount to 10,810,000 kilogrammes of oil. At Mételin a production of 22,550,000 kilogrammes is promised, the increased output at all of these centres being attributed to the dry month of November last (1911), which helped materially to develop the fruit.

The production of wines for the year 1911 was both larger and the quality was much finer than that for the preceding years, amounting to 140,551,500 okes, or, say, 1,809,592 hectolitres. The advance of the wine and spirit industry may be gauged from the returns of the three years 1908–10, and which were as follows: In 1908 the value was (in £ sterling) £489,711, in 1909 £542,565, and in 1910 £738,888. Among the best-known and most largely consumed Greek wines are the "Solonos," red or white, which is made from the delicious grapes of Mount Parnassus, and so-called after the proprietor of the vineyards. Reference has already been made to the excellent brand manufactured at the royal demesne of Tatoï, and known as "Dekéleia." The Archaic Wine Company, a German concern, makes the "Tourláren" (probably a corruption of the words "Tour la Reine"), this being a light and not unpleasant wine made from the grapes grown around Patras. The largest productions come from the various factories of the Hellenic Wine and Spirits Company (Société Hellénique de Vins et Spiritueux), which is closely affiliated with the Vine Products Company, Ltd., an English corporation having its headquarters in London. A dividend amounting to 14 per cent. was distributed upon the ordinary shares in 1911.

TRIKKALA : ANCIENT CHURCH.
One of ten religious Christian buildings.
(See p. 350.)

PATRAS : CATHEDRAL OF SAN ANDRAS.
Soon to be replaced as the principal ecclesiastical edifice by a new and more imposing structure.
(See p. 347.)

Wine Production

The Hellenic Wine and Spirits Company has establishments at Kalamata, Tripolis, Athens, and Myloi, and their factories are equipped with the very latest kind of machinery and appliances. The greater part of their produce is shipped to France, but much is consumed in the country. The Kalamata brands of claret and port wine are much appreciated, as is the liqueur which is made from the banana, a very sweet and rather sickly composition hardly suitable for European taste. Tripolis produces champagne, but here again the consumption is merely local and neither in quality nor appearance is Tripolis champagne attractive to those who are accustomed to more refined wines.

In Cephalonia there are some famous cellars owned by Mr. J. Toole, the successor of the founder of the firm of E. A. Toole, and established upon the island for something like a century. So fine is the quality that the wine is chosen almost exclusively for sacerdotal purposes. In 1909 wines of the value of £10,382, representing a production of 970 tuns, were shipped from Cephalonia, the production in 1910, while being less, about 800 tuns only, realising £11,065. The greater portion of these shipments came from the cellars of Mr. J. Toole. The total crop value of Cephalonian wine in 1910 was £24,000, representing about 500,000 gallons of grapes. And this was at least 40 per cent. below that of the preceding year. Wine is the only product which the island sends to England, and this is forwarded via the Netherlands.

Tobacco is produced in much about the same quality in the Department of Livadia, in Agrinion, at Nauplia, Argos, in Phthyotis, and elsewhere. The Agricultural Company of Greece has experimented in seed brought from Xanthe and Kavalla, but with no particular amount of success. Nevertheless, the total exports from the country of this product amounted in 1904 to a value

of 2,181,000 dr. In the space of ten years the tobacco output doubled itself, the exports ranking in the same proportion. The home consumption of tobacco amounts to about 4,531,000 okes per annum.

Between the years 1894 and 1904 the figures of production and exportation of tobacco were as follows :—

Year.	Production (in thousands of okes).	Exportation.		
		Argos and Nauplia.	Other Districts.	Total.
1894 ...	3,076	712	1,145	1,857
1895 ...	3,872	403	1,069	1,472
1896 ...	4,379	1,185	1,098	2,283
1897 ...	3,686	941	827	1,768
1898 ...	3,384	614	965	1,579
1899 ...	3,640	802	1,488	2,290
1900 ...	5,471	1,066	1,852	2,918
1901 ...	6,122	1,071	2,234	3,305
1902 ...	4,005	1,183	2,374	3,557
1903 ...	7,236	1,425	3,018	4,443
1904 ...	7,945	1,448	1,966	3,414

It will be seen from these statistics that Greece, during the period mentioned, exported over 40 per cent. of her tobacco production. Belgium and Holland purchase the worst qualities of the leaf at the prices of from 30 to 75 lepta (3d. to 6½d.) per oke. This stuff is used for making "cigars."

For the next few years the amount of exported tobacco was as follows: In 1907, 5,292,170 okes; in 1908, 3,804,909 (showing a decline of 1,487,261, of an estimated value of 2,677,069 dr.); in 1909 the amount arose to 7,508,676 dr., increasing in the following year of 1910 to no less than 12,079,039 dr. Of this considerable output the greater part went to Egypt, which is becoming the most important market for Greek tobaccos.

In 1911 the production was not alone greatly superior to that of the preceding year, but amounted to the

remarkable total of 7,396,750 okes, or 9,467,840 kilogrammes. The value exceeded 13,000,000 dr.

Some nine or ten years ago the French Government sent an order to Greece for an amount of tobacco valued at 800,000 francs. But the middlemen, who handled the order, grossly abused the confidence reposed in them, purchasing upon the Government's behalf none but the worst kinds of leaf and this at the highest market prices, besides a variety of tobaccos which they were not commissioned to accept. The result was a complete breaking off of the negotiations with Greece in this connection, and since then they have not been renewed.

Tobacco pays duty to the Government upon the weight of the leaf cut, and this tax is collected in the tobacco-cutting factories. The cutters are allowed to employ their own workmen, but the Government demands a price of 40 lepta per oke for the use of the machinery and for the supervision. The tax upon cutting is 5 dr. per oke, with a further small levy upon the Government label, which must be used in the retail trade, and these approximately amount to 30 lepta per oke. The tax fixed for cigarette-paper is calculated at about 2.40 dr. per oke, making a total payment of about 8.10 dr. per oke. Cigarette-paper is a Government monopoly, the quantities of the paper being purchased as required, and the tobacco cutters are compelled by law to take as much of this paper from the Government as will be required to make the number of cigarettes equivalent to the amount of the leaf which is cut. The price which the cutters pay includes both the cost of the paper and the tax.

As soon as the tobacco is purchased from the growers it is sent to a place where it is overhauled by skilful sorters and distributed into baskets according to the quality. After the leaves have been dried, they are carefully weighed and packed for transport to Egypt, Germany, Austria, Italy, and elsewhere.

The price usually obtained for Greek tobacco is 4 dr. per oke, as against 20 dr. paid per oke for Turkish tobacco. Both Turkish and Greek tobaccos, however, are despatched to Egypt, where they find a ready market, and are there mixed with the native Egyptian tobacco in order to form what is called the "Egyptian" blend. The native tobacco sold in Greece is very cheap. Cigarettes manufactured from it are pronounced by connoisseurs to be really excellent, and, although a Government monopoly, they are moderately priced. Nevertheless a "pipeful" of Greek tobacco is far from what is usually sought for by Englishmen, and even those residents in the country who have become accustomed to smoking this tobacco will admit that it entailed a good deal of time for them to acquire the taste.

The duty imposed upon foreign tobacco entering Greece is placed so high, namely, at 8 dr. per oke, or about 180 per cent. upon the original cost, that it renders importation almost prohibitive.

While Egypt is the principal market for the native tobacco, and which as we have seen is largely exported from Greece, other countries have of late years been purchasing in increasing quantities. Samples have been asked for and sent to Austria latterly, and from this country large orders have been obtained. Several German firms have their permanent agents on the spot for the purpose of buying up any Greek tobacco offering. During the last two years the Italian Government has also sent a representative to Greece, commissioned to buy tobacco, as much on account of its cheapness as for its superior quality when compared with other tobaccos which are consumed in that country.

When in 1862 a determined effort was made by the nations to become independent of North America as the source of cotton supply, some thirty-five different

countries undertook to grow the plant. Among these was Greece; but ten years later when the exhibition, which was especially devoted to cotton and cotton products, was held, namely, in 1872, only half a dozen of the countries interested were represented, and Greece was not one of the exhibitors. Nevertheless the country possesses exceptionally favourable cotton-growing capabilities, and might be made a very prolific source of supply.

It may be said with truth that wherever it is planted in Greece, herbaceous cotton thrives; but, above all, it prospers upon the plains of Argoli, Thessaly, Bœotia, Messenia, and Laconia, and in the Ægean, Ionian, and other islands. Greece always produces sufficient cotton for local consumption, while of late years the kingdom has commenced to export the product in fair quantities. It was from the islands of the Archipelago that the French Government some years ago sent for seeds for plantation in the African colonies of France, and where it seems to have thriven remarkably well.

So successful have the experiments in regard to cotton-growing in Greece proved, that the Government has determined to promote the industry upon a considerably larger scale. Both in regard to the cultivation of the plant and to the quality of the cotton grown, Greece can show far better results than many other parts of the Near East.

When M. Emmanuel A. Benachi assumed the Ministry of Agriculture, Commerce, and National Economy, he determined to carry out the programme which was drawn up at the time of the creation of his Department (January 1, 1911) to develop the riches and resources of the country. Among the items on the programme was the introduction and cultivation of Egyptian cotton, but the culture of the best qualities only. For some years cotton cultivation has been carried on principally in Bœotia, but the quality of the produce has been decidedly inferior, selling only at

the price of good middling American. It may be said that hitherto the cottons of Livadia have been to the cottons of Egypt what the Greek tobacco is to the tobaccos of Kavalla and Xanthe.

M. Benachi commenced by calling for a comparative table of the Egyptian and Grecian climates, and this was provided by the Observatory. Upon comparison, it was found that the Greek climate was in every way suitable for Egyptian cotton cultivation, and, after ascertaining that fact, the late Minister did not hesitate a moment further in carrying out his ideas. A meeting was summoned of all the heads of the Government, such as the prefects, demarchs, police-commissioners, &c., as well as of the native growers and landed proprietors. The results of the conference and of the subsequent experiments did not prove all that might have been desired, nor were the operations carried out as scientifically as they might have been.

In spite of this, however, the actual results surpassed the brightest anticipations. The whole of the samples which had been sent to Egypt were pronounced equal to those of the cotton grown in that country of the finest quality, and the samples were actually sold for far higher prices than those obtained from the very finest Egyptian cotton. In England, the Greek cotton has been found to be preferable to that of the Protectorate, and I have seen a telegram which was sent by a prominent spinner of Egyptian cotton who had already experimented with Greek cotton, instructing its Athens correspondents to buy upon its account "all of this particular class of cotton which was offered, and to any amount."

All this has proved so encouraging to the Government that the enterprise has been taken up vigorously, and is now calculated to bring considerable wealth to the Hellenic Kingdom. It may readily be understood that to a country like Greece a profitable agricultural industry is very valuable, especially as the only really

important cultivation, namely, that of cereals, has hitherto been carried on with implements of antique design. Last year there were in Greece between 3,500 and 4,000 stremma (1 stremma=1,000 square metres—¼ of an acre) of land under cultivation of Egyptian cotton, in addition to 3,000 stremma under cultivation on the estate of M. G. Christaki Zographos, at Lazarina in Thessaly, and the results of which production will be found at the end of this chapter in the form of tabulated sales at Liverpool.

The native cotton short staple is equal to good middling American, and there is a considerable quantity of this grown in Greece. At the present time the demands for Egyptian cotton seed calls for the planting of about 20,000 stremma, and this is expected to be exceeded.

According to present prices, Greek (Egyptian) cotton sells upon the Liverpool and Alexandria markets at from 10½d. to 11½d., while the extra quality fetches up to 12½d. a lb. Upon this basis, the seeds so far sold to planters in Greece represent a production of a value of from 2,500,000 to 3,000,000 dr., or, say, from £100,000 to £120,000. It is fully anticipated that in two or three years' time 1,000,000 stremma, which would be equal to nearly 250,000 acres, of cotton lands will come under cultivation in Greece, and this should yield a return of between 60,000,000 and 80,000,000 dr. (£2,400,000 and £3,200,000) at the present low prices, and taking the average of the last two or three crops.

It may be supposed, if the ambitious ideas of Greek cotton-growers are realised, that there will be some chance of over-production; but I should say that this is in no way likely to occur. North America produces each year from 11,000,000 to 13,000,000 bales, and this year the record crop of 15,000,000, but the Egyptian cotton production over the same period has increased to 7,500,000 cantars (100 lbs.). Neverthe-

less, the supply is scarcely sufficient for the consumption. Indeed, so great is the demand for Egyptian cotton, that a good part of the crop is invariably purchased in advance, and if Greece were planted from one side to the other with cotton there would not be one cantar remaining at the end of the season, for every bale would be bought at twice the price which is paid for the North-American product.

EGYPTIAN COTTON PRODUCED IN THESSALY (AT LAZARINA AND ZOGRAPHIE) IN 1908. SOLD IN LIVERPOOL IN 1909.

Brand.	Bales.	English lbs.	Pence per lb.
Voltos I.	118	32,517	10⅞
„ II.	32	9,218	9¾
„ III.	13	3,801	9
„ IV.	10	3,170	6¼
Afifi I.	11	3,501	9⅜
„ II.	7	2,281	7¾
Jeanovits I.	8	2,349	11⅛
„ II.	4	1,237	9½
Nubari I.	8	2,349	9¼
„ II.	8	2,505	9½
„ III.	7	1,984	7¾
Total	226	64,912	

Once Greece becomes recognised as a cotton-growing country, buyers will not have to be sought for. They will go there and buy on their own account, and, moreover, buy in advance of the crop as they do in Egypt. In the Protectorate a large portion of the crop is purchased before a seed is put into the ground. The Greek Government, through the Department of Agriculture, is willing to guarantee to cultivators the fullest possible support in disposing of their crops, and there can be no question that the growers will be perfectly certain of finding a market.

When a native grower cultivates cotton he realises

COTTON PLANTATIONS.

1. Field in Thessaly, where the results have been extremely satisfactory.
2. A flourishing field in the Peloponnesus, showing the crop of 1911.

(See p. 262.)

[To face p. 267.

Cotton Cultivation

EGYPTIAN COTTON PRODUCED IN THESSALY (AT LAZARINA AND ZOGRAPHIE) IN 1909, SOLD IN 1910 AT LIVERPOOL.

Brand.	Bales.	English lbs.	Pence per lb.
Voltos I.	49	13,942	16½
„ II.	18	5,605	16¼
„ III.	8	2,813	14¾
„ IV.	4	1,492	14½
Afifi I.	7	2,029	15¾
„ II.	2	757	14½
Theodoron I.	43	12,680	16¾
„ II.	37	11,510	16½
„ III.	24	8,859	15½
„ IV.	9	2,903	14½
Nubari I.	8	2,477	16¼
„ II.	1	342	15¾
„ III.	8	2,528	15½
„ IV.	1	389	14
Total	219	68,329	

EGYPTIAN COTTON PRODUCED IN THESSALY (AT LAZARINA AND ZOGRAPHIE) IN 1910. SOLD IN LIVERPOOL IN 1911.

Brand.	Bales.	English lbs.	Pence per lb.
Voltos I.	129	39,320	14 & 13¾
„ II.	25	7,750	14 & 19½
„ III.	12	3,479	12 & 11¼
„ IV.	21	5,846	10⅛
„ V.	22	5,690	9
Jeanovits I.	15	4,707	15 & 14
„ II.	4	1,198	14½ & 11¾
„ III.	4	1,307	10¾
„ IV.	9	2,320	9
Sakelarides I.	20	5,456	16
„ II.	4	1,103	15½ & 15
„ IV.	3	304	9
Theodoron I.	5	1,508	13
„ IV.	2	646	9
Nubari I.	5	1,512	12
„ IV.	2	718	7
	12	2,903	—
Total	294	86,267	

from at least 60 to 100 okes per stremma (1,000 square metres) and thus secures a net profit, after allowing for all expenses (which should, under no circumstances, exceed 15 to 20 per cent. upon ordinary cultivation) of from 40 to 80 dr. per annum; therefore in one year the cultivator ought to have made almost enough to pay the purchase price of his land. This latter at present is extremely cheap throughout Greece; but, of course, it cannot always be expected to remain so, and once the great possibilities of the profits appertaining to cotton cultivation are realised, the cost of land will most assuredly advance.

The best kinds of Egyptian cotton are grown upon the Thessalian lands with complete success. The cotton is decorticated and pressed into bales on the estates, notably that of Lazarina, already referred to. A new installation which has been erected there, and which is fitted with Platts' decorticators and an hydraulic press, is found sufficient to work the cotton produced upon the estate. In this matter the proprietor is no longer at the experimental stage. The subjoined list of exports to Liverpool and of sales effected there gives an exact idea of the quality of the products and of the future of this culture in Thessaly. It is at Zographie that this culture has succeeded best. This, no doubt, is because the land there is more sandy and less humid than at Lazarina.

This cultivation of Egyptian cotton has an encouraging future in Thessaly, and, indeed, it is destined to materially modify the agricultural conditions and the economic situation of that part of Greece.

The Lake Copais Company, Ltd., owns about 60,000 acres of land, situated upon the great plain of Copais, where at one time was situated a lake of that name. The chief source of its revenue is the leasing or renting portions of its property as arable and pasture lands. Those which are let for the purposes of cultivating cereals, such as barley, maize, rye, wheat, &c., are rented

upon a basis of 20 per cent. of the actual yield of the crops, such rental being payable in kind. Tenants are compelled to bring their grain to the Company in order to have it threshed, and a charge of 9 per cent. upon the yield is made (in addition to the rent) for the work of threshing.

Cotton is also grown here, but there is a special rental levied for such lands as cultivate the staple, namely, a tribute of 20 okès per stremma ($\frac{1}{4}$ acre) of irrigated land, and 15 okes per stremma of non-irrigated land. About 40,000 acres, or two-thirds of the whole of the Lake Çopais estate, are under tributary cultivation, while the company itself cultivates about 3,000 acres. Barley is found to be the most profitable of all cereals which are grown here.

Pasture land rentals are paid in cash and not in kind, the rent charged being fixed at 4 dr. per head for sheep during the winter months, and from 1 to 1.5 dr. per head during the summer, or from 5 to 5.5 dr. per head of sheep for the year. The charge made for goats is 1 dr. in summer and the same rate in winter, or 2 dr. for the twelve months.

Mr. D. Steele, who has acted as manager for the Lake Copais Company, Ltd., for a considerable period, has brought the business of the concern into a very advanced state of perfection. It is no fault of the present management that the finances of the company have been mismanaged, or that almost £750,000 of the original capital has been sunk. Since Mr. Steele's administration many valuable reforms have been introduced and are maintained, while the relations existing between the management and the peasant tenants, as well as with the surrounding residents and the official authorities, are of the very best. Mr. Steele, while maintaining the most friendly relations with his neighbours and the Government representatives, has commendably and wisely refrained from interfering in local politics or permitting any of his employees to do so.

Hence his own great popularity and the general esteem which is entertained for the company and its methods of operation.

A Sericultural Society formerly incorporated with the Agricultural Society is doing useful work, and during the ten years that it has existed it has made remarkable progress. The membership exceeds 1,500 and there are about forty branches. The Society possesses its own nurseries for propagating the mulberry-trees, and these are distributed free among any of the public who call for them.

The silk industry of Greece is receiving more attention to-day than it has ever done, and there are indications that the steps which have been taken to place it upon a definite and a paying basis will prove successful. In the month of June last (1912) the first public exhibition of silk and silk manufactures ever held in the kingdom was opened at the Zappeion Palace in Athens. As usual in undertakings of this kind the King and Queen, as well as several of the princes, favoured the exhibition, and they have since done much to assist its objects. Madame Zlatanon, who organised it, conducts the arrangements admirably.

CHAPTER XXII

Agriculture (*continued*)—Vine cultivation—Ancient industry—Production during fifty years—British consumption—Process of culture—Patras, centre of industry—Labour—Seasons—Exports—Factories—Improving the trade—Institution of Privileged Company—Financing the company—Methods adopted—Benefits provided—Popularising consumption—*Personnel* of company—Profits earned—Heavily increased exportation—Augmented British consumption.

IN spite of the fact that many attempts have been made to cultivate the currant-vine in other lands, it is in Greece alone that currants can be grown to the fullest commercial advantage. In California, Australia, Sicily, and parts of Asia Minor one may see what appears to be currant-plants in full bloom, and presenting as fine a growth as that to be met with in Greece, but to the eye of the expert there is a vast difference between the two productions. Even throughout Greece itself the currant-vine does not grow with equal excellence; for it is mainly upon the narrow strip of land which begins at the southern part of the Gulf of Corinth and ends at Cape Matapan, in the Gulf of Laconia, that the best results in currant-growing are obtained. In few parts of this territory is there found a greater width than of five miles, while it narrows down in some portions to a width of but one mile. Practically the whole length, with the sea upon its north-western side and a range of high hills upon its south-eastern side, does not exceed 250 miles.

Vines have been cultivated in Greece from the most ancient times, and even in its mythological history the

country contains records of wines made from dried grapes. These were the favourite beverages with the ancient Greeks, and it was only later on that they made their wines from fresh grapes, an innovation which was introduced by Œnopœus, the son of Bacchus, who is also credited with having taught the art of wine-making to Icarus as a reward for his hospitality to the vine-garlanded god.

At a later period considerable trade seems to have been done in currants. Professor James E. Thorold Rogers, in his "History of Agriculture and Prices in England," has a good deal to say about currants, which were known between the years 1334 and 1337 as "raisins de Corauntz," and most of which—then as now—found their way to the English markets. Professor Rogers even gives the prices of the commodity—namely, 2¾d. per lb., which would be equal to at least 5s. per lb. at the present-day computation.

The land in Greece at present under currant cultivation amounts to about 150,000 acres, and this is mainly owned by peasant proprietors, numbering over 60,000, so that each proprietor owns upon an average 2½ acres. Originally the land belonged to the State, but by a special law it was allotted to the people on easy terms. The average yield per acre may be estimated at one ton per annum, and there are variations in the quality as well as in the cost of production in the various districts.

During the last fifty years the production of currants in Greece has increased enormously. In the early part of the last century, and during the first years of the Greek War of Independence, but few currants were exported from the Peloponnesus. In 1825 the crop was barely 1,000 tons, while three years afterwards, in 1828, it had not exceeded 2,000 tons. In 1831, on the eve of the liberation of Greece from Turkish dominion, the whole crop of the Peloponnesus did not amount to more than 2,300 tons, but in 1845 it had increased to 6,500 tons. Between the years 1851

and 1856 the currant-plants were ruined by a vine disease called *Oidium*, and no currants were produced during this period, nor until the disease was rendered innocuous by the use of sulphur. In 1860 the crop amounted to 52,000 tons, inclusive of 13,000 tons from the Ionian Islands. By 1871 the product represented 81,000 tons and in 1878 101,000 tons. In 1888 the yield reached 160,000 tons, in 1895 177,000 tons; in 1908 and in 1909, both record years, the crops amounted to 185,000 tons. For 1910 the output receded to 123,000 tons, while in 1911 the results are given as 157,000 tons.

It is to England that the best quality of currants are shipped, the inferior qualities going to other countries. As we insist upon having the best qualities, and take the largest quantities, so must we pay the highest prices. Ancient British statistics show that as far back as 1678 we were importing currants, when the consumption of this fruit amounted to 1,840 tons. For the next twenty-five years very little advance was made in the trade, for in 1701 the imports amounted to but 2,382, and in 1726 to 2,943. The imports then began to fall off, until in 1757 the amount did not exceed 1,056 tons. Thereafter, however, year by year the trade improved, until 1820, when the annual consumption amounted to 5,631 tons, while in 1835 it reached 9,685 tons. With a considerable reduction in price ten years later the annual consumption was 15,000 tons, while in 1880 it had attained the dimensions of over 40,000 tons; and when in 1890 the duty was reduced from 7s. to 2s. per cwt., the consumption advanced from a little over 45,000 to over 55,000 tons, with prices ranging between 22s. and 39s. per cwt.

The history of the negotiations between the London dried fruit trade and the British Government form an instructive study in themselves, and lack of space alone prevents a reproduction in these pages of the whole of the "Statement of Case" which was addressed

to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. (afterwards Viscount) Goschen, in the month of March, 1889. For a long time the London dried fruit trade had felt the hardship of the heavy import duties upon certain kinds of fruit, and in the autumn of 1888 a meeting of the different branches of this trade was held in Mincing Lane, at which a representative Committee was appointed with the object of getting these duties remitted or reduced. The names of the members of the Committee were: Mr. E. A. Golds, Mr. A. H. Stableforth, and Mr. R. Morton, representing the dried fruit dealers; Mr. Edwin Farley, representing the brokers; Mr. John Townsend, representing the importers of raisins; Mr. C. Protopazzi, representing the importers of sultanas and figs; and Mr. Theodore A. Burlumi, representing the importers of currants. The Committee explained and supported their petition further by interviews and correspondence with the Chancellor and Treasury officials; and so ably did they perform their task that, as already mentioned, in April, 1890, the Convention between the U. Kingdom and Greece reducing the duty on currants from 7s. to 2s. per cwt. was signed by the Marquis of Salisbury and M. J. Gennadius, then, as now, Greek Minister in London.

France and Russia were formerly very good customers of Greece, although the later protective tariffs of both these countries dealt a heavy blow to the currant industry of the Hellenic Kingdom. Before the tariffs were imposed France took between 60,000 and 70,000 tons of currants, or about one-half of the whole crop of the country, and converted it into wine to supplement her own vintage, largely diminished by the *phylloxera*. When her vineyards had been replanted and her vintage increased, France legislated currants out of her territory. Practically the same thing happened in Russia. That country commenced importing currants to some extent in 1893, increasing yearly her importations, until in 1896 they had attained over

30,000 tons. But in 1897 Russia placed upon currants a duty equal to £18 per ton, since increased to £27, thus practically shutting them out of her vast empire. Neither France nor Russia produces currants, and the heavy duties which they have imposed are intended to protect their own wine industries.

The cultivation of the currant requires a great deal of careful attention and systematic labour, practically the whole of it being done by hand. The appearance of a vine country, if seen out of the season, is anything but impressive, the ground having the appearance of being covered by a number of straggling, irregular, gnarled, and bare stumps, each about 18 in. to 2 ft. in height. Seen in the summer, however, when the plants are in full bloom, the currant vineyards, with their vivid green foliage and graceful, waving branches, afford a delightful spectacle, especially when viewed beneath the deep blue of a Grecian sky.

In the month of January the digging, which forms the most expensive part of the work, commences, and lasts up to the month of March. The object of this operation is to air the roots of the vines, and to permit the soil around them to absorb oxygen from the atmosphere. The whole vineyard is dug up and the earth piled up into little conical mounds between the vines. In the month of March the eyes begin to bud out, and as soon as the young and tender shoots reach to about a foot in length the conical mounds are dispersed and the ground is levelled. In May the flowering begins, and immediately afterwards the "ring-cutting" is done. This is a recent discovery, and was unknown fifty years ago, and before this operation was introduced the berries were not much larger than one-half the size which is now obtained, since "ringing" or "ring-cutting" prevents the sap from running down the stem, and thus enhances the pulp of the berries. By the end of May the shrubs are fully expanded, the luxuriant foliage surrounding the fruit, which is by then formed

into clusters or bunches, protected against the too ardent rays of the sun by the copious leaves. By the middle of June the foliage has to be thinned and the bunches of fruit exposed to the sun, so that ripening may not be retarded. The longest branches, laden with the most fruit, have to be supported upon strong wooden poles.

By the end of July the fruit is partly ripe for cutting. Ripe bunches are then cut off with scissors and placed in baskets, which when full are carried to the drying-grounds ; these bunches are laid one by one in trays close to one another, after all unripe and unsound berries have been removed. There is no chemical treatment, such as is necessary in the case of raisins and sultanas, which are dipped into a solution of soda or lye in order to accelerate the drying process. The drying of currants is effected by the action of the sun and air, the fruit being exposed to the influence of the elements for a period of ten to twelve days, according to the temperature. When they are thoroughly dry the berries are picked off their stalks and carried to the winnowing and separating machines, after which process they are ready for marketing.

The city of Patras is the principal currant market of the world, being the centre of the currant export trade, and not inaptly named "Currantopolis."

By a recent regulation of the Greek Government, pains and penalties are rigorously imposed upon growers who offer for sale immature and insufficiently dried fruit, the Customs officers being empowered to prohibit shipment of such produce.

England takes her currants in quarter cases, each containing about 50 lbs. of fruit. Our Australian colonies, which are large consumers of Greek currants, although Victoria and South Australia grow a few inferior classes of their own, take their supplies mostly in half cases. The North of Europe—Germany, Belgium, and Holland—buy their fruit in barrels, cases,

and half cases, and occasionally in bags. The United States and Canada—where there seems to be an immense field for Greek currants—take their present supplies in half cases and barrels ; France prefers her currants in half cases. It may be mentioned that the barrel contains about 250 lbs., the bag 112 or 56 lbs., and the case 120 lbs. ; a half case 60 lbs., and a quarter case from 40 to 50 lbs.

In connection with the principal industry of Patras—namely, the currant trade—and during the busiest season of the year, all through the months of August, September, and October there are about 3,000 labourers employed upon the cleaning and packing of currants for transport ; later on this number is considerably diminished. More than one-half of the currant crop is shipped from the port between August and the end of November, while the shipping of the remaining portion is spread over the other eight months of the year. During the four months above mentioned the sea-front of Patras is encumbered by many thousands of wooden packing-cases containing currants awaiting shipment.

Of the labourers engaged in this flourishing industry, one-half consists of men and the other half of women and girls, the latter being principally employed in the lighter kind of work, such as cleaning, sorting, &c. The wages paid amount to between 5 and 7 dr. for the men and between 1½ and 2 dr. for the girls and women, in each case for a ten-hour day. Work during the busy months is carried on both by day and by night shifts, the workers in the latter case being paid double rates. Agricultural labourers in this district receive about 5 dr. per day, while in other districts, where the living is found to be cheaper, the wages paid amount to about 4 to 5 dr. a day.

There are several currant-cleaning factories in Patras, situated on the extensive quay. The process of screening, sorting into sizes, cutting the tails off the berries, and picking out stalks or any other foreign

matter is not an old one. Until 1898 the fruit was roughly sifted, and the more elaborate work was left for the retailer or the user abroad. Now most of the fruit exported is prepared in Patras, ready for the cook, the confectioner, and the baker. In 1899 some two or three factories were erected, but the number gradually increased. The principal establishments at the present day are owned by the Patras exporting firms of Messrs. Hancock & Wood, N. C. Raftopulo & Co., B. K. Antonopulo & Brother, P. A. Burlumi & Co., and others. The machinery is mostly English, and the motive power is generated by gas. The gas-engines have been supplied chiefly by Messrs. Crossley Bros., Ltd., and Gardner & Co.; the cleaning machines by Messrs. Caleb Duckworth and Peter & Lund. The last-mentioned apparatus, however, as well as the winnowing and sorting machines, are now made on the spot at a smaller cost than that paid for machines of foreign make. All the Greek cleaning factories employ the dry process; they use no water, and the fruit so treated retains its natural bloom and keeps in good condition for any length of time, advantages which are lacking in fruit treated by the wet process, which is mainly used in other countries. The largest dry-cleaning factory in Patras has just been put up by the firm of P. A. Burlumi & Co., with a full equipment of the latest type of machinery employed in this particular industry. This factory is situated on the quay, opposite the Custom House. It is a four-storey building, with a superficial area of 5,500 sq. ft., employing at the busy season about 150 hands, mostly girls. Attached to the factory are seven warehouses, with a storing capacity of over 5,000 tons of currants.

Enormous quantities of currants are purchased annually by the large firms of currant-bread bakers and cake and biscuit manufacturers in England, such as the famous firm of Messrs. Huntley & Palmer, Ltd., of Reading, who turn out no fewer than forty different

PATRAS: DRY CURRANT-CLEANING FACTORY BELONGING TO MESSRS. P. A. BURLUMI AND CO., OF LONDON, LIVERPOOL, AND PATRAS.
Completed September, 1912.
(See p. 278.)

kinds of biscuit in the making of which currants are used. Also prominent in the use of currants are Messrs. Carr & Co., of Carlisle, and Messrs. Peek, Frean & Co., Ltd., of Bermondsey.

It is not only against vine diseases that currant-growers have had to contend in Greece. For many years they suffered from over-production, and this proved even a greater evil than the maladies to which the vines are subject. It therefore became imperative that some steps should be taken to place the currant industry upon a permanently stable and satisfactory basis, since it had in years past proved the most lucrative of any of the agricultural industries carried on in the country. The question arose, "How was this amelioration to be brought about?" The efforts of the Retention Act Administration to restrict the excess of supplies had failed, and this part of the Government Act, which was to have effected so much benefit, remained ineffectual. At each successive season it was shown that the supplies continued to be in excess of the requirements, a fact which brought about, as a natural result, a depreciation of the article, with heavy losses to the growers. A currant bank had been founded by the Act of 1899, but the low prices realised by their crops deprived the growers of the means wherewith they hoped to discharge their obligations to the bank, and this institution was unable to pay to the Treasury the amount of the land tax, against which the Retention currants had been made over to it by the same Act.

So unsatisfactory was the condition of affairs that the Government, at the end of 1904, introduced a Bill repealing the clauses of the Act as to the collection in kind of the land tax on currant estates, and reverting to the old system of collecting it in money at the Customs. The introduction of the Bill was followed by a panic in the currant market, and it became clear that unless some remedial measure was adopted, and that

at once, the whole industry would become imperilled. It was at this juncture that M. John Pesmazoglu, who was then General Manager of the Bank of Athens, and a member of the Chamber of Deputies, with the assistance of M. Theodore Burlumi, (than whom no one was more competent from a technical point of view, or has shown himself more zealous in defending the interests of the currant-growers always, and of the company since its inception), proposed a scheme to solve the problem. The Government, however, declined to consider it unless the approval of the English trade was first secured for it. M. Pesmazoglu succeeded in raising the necessary capital in Athens, London, and Paris, and also secured, with material modifications, safeguarding the interests of the consumers, the adhesion of the executive committee of the London Dried Fruit Dealers' Association. The issue of the negotiations was the formation of the Privileged Company to Protect the Production and the Commerce of Currants, with a capital of £800,000, divided into 80,000 shares of £10 each.

The London banking house of Emile Erlanger & Co., of 8, Crosby Square, E.C., and its English group, participated to the extent of £200,000. The French group, under the leadership of the Banque de l'Union Parisienne, and the Greek group, represented by the Bank of Athens, each took a similar amount. The remaining quarter of the capital was allotted to the Currants Bank, which was practically absorbed by the new concern. Its founder, M. John Pesmazoglu, became the first President; but death removed this remarkable man within a year of his most notable and unique financial achievement. His memory, however, remains, and will remain for a long time, green in the thoughts of myriads of Greek currant-growers whom his genius and his devotion to their welfare have saved from ruin.

As soon as the capital was subscribed a convention,

ratified by Act of the Hellenic Parliament, was signed between the Greek Government and the Bank of Athens, as representing the founders of the new institution.

The Privileged Company was to take over from the Currants Bank the right to collect the retention and land tax in kind, at the rate of 40 per cent. on the fruit produced in the Ionian Islands and of 35 per cent. on that produced in the other parts of Greece, upon the quantities exported, against a yearly payment to the Treasury of 4,000,000 dr. The company undertook to buy at prices fixed according to quality at 115, 130, and 145 dr. per thousand Venetian pounds, any currants which were offered to it between the dates of June 28th and August 14th (new style), and also to buy at 115 dr. per thousand Venetian pounds, irrespective of quality, any currants offered to it between the dates of August 23rd and November 14th (new style). The company can resell the currants so bought for trade purposes within the current year in which the purchase has been made, but not below the fixed price of 160 dr. per thousand Venetian pounds. The currants bought by the company, as well as those received as retention and land tax, can also be resold for trade purposes at any period, but not below the fixed price of 200 dr. per thousand Venetian pounds. All the currants which are not so required by the exporting traders the company is bound to convert into other products, their exportation in their natural state being strictly prohibited under heavy penalties by the Convention. To effect this conversion the Privileged Company founded, in 1906, a subsidiary company under the title, "The Greek Wine and Spirits Company." This offshoot, with a capital recently raised to £400,000, has been very successful, and has paid to its shareholders, for 1911, a dividend of 15 per cent.

The Convention imposed upon the Privileged Company the obligation of providing storehouses capable of holding at least 175,000,000 Venetian pounds of

currants, to store therein, free of rent, insurance, and all other charges, any currants delivered to it; and to advance against the currants so stored up to 80 per cent. of their conventional value, and at a rate of interest not exceeding 6 per cent. per annum. Against these advantages the growers have to pay the company 7 dr. per thousand Venetian pounds for rent, insurance, management, premium for the minimum price guaranteed, &c. This necessarily rapid enumeration of the provisions of the Convention makes it clear that steps were taken to protect the industry upon a sound basis, such as had never before been attempted.

Very early in its career, the company met with a great deal of opposition; all kinds of disasters were prophesied for it, but it overcame most obstacles and lived down opposition. Confidence in its solidity slowly asserted itself in Greece as well as abroad. Prices of currants also improved, and, indeed, exceeded the limits fixed by the Convention.

The company soon recognised that success depended mainly upon the increase of the consumption of currants in foreign countries, and it adopted the very sensible step of advertising currants as an article of food. In this effort it was materially assisted by the receipt of many unsolicited testimonials, given by such high authorities upon dietary matters as Sir Francis Laking, Bart., the eminent Royal physician; Professor Otto Hehner, and other well-known food specialists. Ever since its constitution the company has been spending a considerable amount of money for the purpose of popularising currants in the United Kingdom, the United States, and elsewhere. How wise was the step ventured upon is proved by the extraordinary increase of currants in use as well as in the improvement obtained in the selling prices.

During the several years of its existence the company has continued its work of popularising the fruit and benefiting the trade generally, whilst advancing the

interests of the growers in Greece. It is undoubtedly by its efforts that the quality of the currants exported has greatly improved, and the consumption in the United Kingdom rose during the year 1911 to the record quantity of 65,570 tons.

Two successive large crops, those of 1908 and 1909, each of 185,000 tons, greatly embarrassed the company, and crippled its resources to such an extent that the Board decided to look about for measures of a permanent restriction of the output. An increase of plantations had been provided against by the Convention; but the Board thought that part of the existing plantations, the least productive, might be uprooted on a basis of compensation by the company to the grower, to whom would still be left the ownership of the land. To effect this object a convention was signed in 1909 between the Government and the Privileged Company, and ratified eventually by Act of the Greek Parliament, by which power was given to the company to contract a loan up to £500,000, at a rate of interest not exceeding 6 per cent. per annum, and with a sinking fund sufficient to pay off the debt, by yearly drawings, within the unexpired period of the company's privilege—namely, the year 1925. The proceeds of the loan were to be employed exclusively for the compensation of currant-vine owners, who would offer to the company to uproot all or part of their currant-vines. The amount of compensation was to be fixed by private agreement between the company and the owner, with perfect freedom to the latter to ask any price that he pleased, but with an obligation by the company to pay not less than 80 dr. per stremma (= about £13 per acre). The loan has been contracted, at 5 per cent. per annum interest, with the London banking-house of Messrs. Emile Erlanger & Co., and it is amply secured by the assignment to trustees of the 7 dr. per thousand Venetian pounds of currants produced, paid by the growers to the company. The service of the loan requires

£47,000, while the yearly revenue collected by the trustees exceeds £110,000. In the event of the State exercising its right to purchase the privileges of the company, or to revoke the concessions before the full repayment of the loan, the State assumes full responsibility for the payment of capital and interest upon the bonds. The deracination of currant-vine plantations effected up to now extends to an area of 24,000 stremmas, equal to 6,000 acres.

The present Board of the Privileged Company is composed as follows :—

M. Zafirios C. Matsas	...	General Manager of the Bank of Athens ; *President.*
M. John Eutaxias...	...	Deputy Governor of the National Bank of Greece ; *Vice-President.*
The Baron Emile B. Erlanger		Of Messrs. Emile Erlanger & Co., 8, Crosby Square, London, E.C.
M. Charles Wehrung	...	Director of the Banque de l'Union Parisienne, Paris,
Mr. Edward Bowron	...	Deputy Chairman of Messrs. J. Travers & Sons, Ltd., 119, Cannon Street, London ; chairman of the London Dried Fruit Dealers' Association, and London Dried Fruit Trade Association.
M. Leonidas Zarifi ...	...	Banker, Constantinople.
M. Stephen Franchiadi	...	Chairman of the Board of the Bank of Athens.
M. D. Eliopulos ...	...	Director of the Board of the Bank of Athens.
M. D. Georgiades ...	...	Director of the Hellenic Railway, Athens.

There are three other directors, who are appointed by the Greek Government, and a Royal Commissioner, who is entitled to take part in the deliberations of the Board, but without having the right of a vote. M. D. Galanopoulos is the secretary-general of the company. There is also a Board Committee, sitting in London, composed of Baron Emile Erlanger, Mr. Charles Wehrung, Mr. Edward Bowron, and Mr. Charles Bowlby. This committee decides upon and controls

the advertising propaganda carried on in the United Kingdom and in other consuming countries, and looks over all other matters affecting the interests of the company abroad.

While the growers have certainly not done badly, and the dealers and grocers are believed to have done fairly well, the results of trading since the advent of the Privileged Company cannot be called satisfactory to the importers in the United Kingdom. As to the Privileged Company's own profits, it may be observed that for the first year of its existence it paid on its ordinary shares only a small dividend of 2½ per cent.; for the second year it paid the full statutory dividend of 6 per cent., and for the third year it paid 10 per cent., together with a distribution of 6½ dr. per share upon its founder's shares. For the years following, however, the company was unable to pay any dividend whatever.

It will be seen that while the company itself has held out, with very great success, a helping hand to the native growers, and has solved conclusively the once great problem of how the most important agricultural industry of Greece was to be preserved from ruin, it has done but little for itself. Thus it may be regarded in the light of a philanthropic rather than a profit-earning institution.

Recognising that with experience its operations could be improved, the company has constantly accepted suggestions and modifications in its conventions, with the result that the conduct of its affairs is now infinitely more acceptable to the currant-growers than was the case originally.

The object of the compnay is, as is clearly shown, not only to eliminate the surplus production, but to improve the quality and thereby encourage the consumption of the fruit, and to secure for the growers a remunerative price for their currants without pressing unduly upon the consumer. Although not invariably

with the same degree of success, it may be said that the company has attained its objects. While it is an excellent thing to prevent over-production, it would, however, seem that greater advantages would accrue to the growers and to the company alike if fresh openings for the produce could be found and new markets established. This would be even better than restricting production, and no doubt such a policy will be introduced in future years. There would be abundant opportunity for this, since, as may be once again mentioned, it is in Greece—and in Greece alone—that currants can be successfully grown for the world's markets.

This chapter cannot offer a more interesting conclusion than the appended table of figures, to which the reader is referred for fuller information on the subject. The statistics are given in tons of the production and exportation of currants, showing the universal consumption (outside of Greece) and consumption in the United Kingdom.

Year.	Production.	Exportation.	Consumption outside of Greece.	Consumption in the U.K.	Price per cwt., December 31st, in London.
1800	4,000	4,000	4,000	3,600	—
1810	5,500	5,500	5,500	4,500	—
1821	6,000	6,000	6,000	5,600	110s.
1831	8,000	8,000	8,000	5,700	78s.
1841	10,000	10,000	10,000	8,200	70s.
1851	37,000	37,000	35,000	20,300	40s. to 46s.
1861	42,800	42,800	43,000	32,000	25s. „ 34s.
1871	81,300	81,300	80,000	38,800	28s. „ 42s.
1881	124,000	124,000	120,000	42,000	29s. „ 42s.
1891	162,000	154,000	162,000	57,000	17s. 6d. to 35s.
1901	141,000	121,500	115,000	48,200	19s. to 32s.
1905	160,500	113,000	112,500	54,000	18s. 6d. to 30s.
1906	135,500	108,700	116,200	62,200	25s. 6d. „ 40s.
1907	156,000	126,000	120,000	63,700	24s. to 35s.
1908	185,000	108,000	113,000	57,900	19s. „ 35s.
1909	185,000	120,000	118,000	60,000	19s. 6d. to 28s.
1910	123,000	114,500	114,000	61,100	27s. 6d. „ 45s.
1911	157,000	113,000	117,500	65,500	27s. 6d. „ 35s.

CHAPTER XXIII.

Mining — Geological formation — Strata — Prosperity of industry — Laurium district—Mining laws—Number of persons employed—Accidents—Labour—Magnesite mines—Emery quarries—Iron-ore companies at work — British enterprises — Petroleum — Marble quarries—Government supervision—Company's complaints—Compensation to workmen—Charge upon company's revenues.

IT is the general opinion of those who have visited Greece, and who have made a careful inspection of its natural resources, that the mining industry is destined yet to play an important part in the future economic development of the country. The geological formation of Greece has frequently been written upon, and it is unnecessary for me to offer anything further in regard to this. The subject, for instance, has been amply dealt with in the account of the scientific expedition which was dispatched by the French Government some eighty years ago to make a geographical and geological survey of the then newly founded State; and those of my readers who are sufficiently interested in the matter to require further enlightenment, may be confidently referred to this still existing and still valuable report. Some years after the same was issued, at the instigation of King Otto, the geological formations of Greece were again explored, this time by two Germans named Fiedler and Russigger, while, still later, investigations were made by MM. Gaudray and Unger.

Geologically speaking, Greece is characterised by three different kinds of strata, firstly, the crystalline,

which appears to belong to the azoic period and which consists of rocks of great age, such as gneiss, mica, marble, and phyllite; secondly, strata of the chalk formation, such as limestone, clay, and sandstone; and thirdly, the Tertiary strata. In addition to these principal forms, there occur in the plains alluvial and diluvial deposits, which must be taken into consideration, as well as volcanic rocks, such as granite, gabbro (mostly changed into serpentine), trachyte, and andesite.

During the past few years the mining industry has failed to make any decided headway, but it may be said, nevertheless, to have held its own. The year 1910 proved a more successful one than its predecessor, for the total output of minerals amounted to 1,011,035 tons, as against 958,873 tons for 1909, while the blast-furnaces produced 63,434 tons as against 58,759 tons. The ores and raw materials produced included chromite, copper, emery, iron manganese, iron, iron pyrites, lead, lignite, manganese, magnesite, nickel, sulphur, and zinc, while the produce of the blast-furnaces included lead, calcined zinc, magnesite—calcined and briquette. The marble quarries produced less in 1910 than in the previous year, since the amount quarried was only 2,851 cubic metres as against 3,750 cubic metres in 1909. In actual value also the results were disappointing, for the net receipts amounted to £318,150, as against £480,120, or a decrease of £165,000.

The principal enterprises concerned in working the Grecian mines at the present time are those of the Laurium district, where there are three companies interested, namely, the French Mining Company, of Laurium, which has existed since 1875, the Greek Metallurgic Company, and the French Mining Company, of Sunium. All of these concerns were at one time very flourishing, profiting not only from the then unexhausted mineral resources of this region, but also from the

LARISSA : STONE BRIDGE OVER THE BROAD AND RAPID SALAMVRÍA (THE ANCIENT PENEIOS).
A favourite evening promenade.
(See p. 220.)

TRIKKALA : ONE OF THE SEVERAL HANDSOME BRIDGES WHICH SPAN THE TRIKKALINÓS, THE ANCIENT LETHÆOS.
It is constructed throughout of iron with stone abutments.
(See p. 350.)

refuse of the ancient mines and smelting works, for mining had been carried on in Greece from the time that the Phœnicians ruled the Mediterranean. A period of years, however, has made an altogether extraordinary difference in the value of the Laurium mines, and the output of lead shows a serious falling off. The output of iron, on the other hand, marks an increase.

That mining is still a profitable industry, however, may be ascertained from studying the balance-sheets of the majority of the companies engaged in it. The French Company, which owns the Seriphos-Spiliazeza iron mines, made a profit of £31,000 in 1910, while the French Mining Company of Laurium earned a profit of £23,000. Several smaller companies, such as those owning the Atalanti iron mines and the chromite mines, earned profits ranging between £5,000 and £8,000.

The Mining Law which is in force in the Hellenic Kingdom to-day is the same as that which was introduced on the 22nd of August, 1861, with the addition of various modifications which have been introduced from time to time. It is based upon the French Mining Law of 1812. This enactment regulates the various formalities connected with the acquisition of mineral concessions, and defines the obligations of the concessionaire to the State and to the owners of the soil respectively.

The number of persons engaged in 1910 in the mines and at the blast-furnaces was about 6,050 and 1,720 respectively, as compared with the previous year of 8,390 and 1,980, thus showing a considerable diminution in the number of hands employed, a circumstance which is due to the reduced productive capacity of the Laurium mines. Quarries, salt-works, &c., give employment to only 450 men as compared with nearly 900 in the previous year, in this case showing a decrease of 50 per cent.

The French Mining Company of Laurium now employs 3,300 labourers, and the Greek Company about

700, as against 10,000 by both companies in former years.

Mining labour in Greece is very cheap, and the peasant population may be regarded as both intelligent and well-disposed to foreigners; up till now they have remained quite free from the socialistic tendencies of the age. All mines at present working in the country employ native labour, apparently with very satisfactory results.

The number of fatal accidents in the mines and at the blast-furnaces is officially declared to be 1·1 per 1,000, and the number of persons injured as 9·79 per 1,000, these figures being for the year 1910, and compare with 1·49 and 0·39 per 1,000 respectively for 1909.

Other mining undertakings in various parts of Greece include magnesite mines of Eubœa; the iron and manganese mines of Grammatikon, Siphnos, Teriphos, and Milos; the sulphur mines and marble quarries of Attica, Peloponnesus, and the Grecian Archipelago; and the celebrated emery quarries of Naxos. This latter mineral is found in immense quantities in two communes of the island of Naxos, and is the exclusive property of the State. The International Financial Commission indirectly holds the control of the emery industry in Greece.

The principal emery markets in Europe are the United Kingdom, Germany, France, Belgium, and Holland. The average price which it commands is between 112 and 115 dr. per ton.

Magnesite mines have been worked by two principal companies, one being a Greek concern, La Société des Travaux Publics et Communaux, which works the mines at Mantudi and Limni in Eubœa; and the other the British Petrified Company, Ltd., (since 1897) engaged in the mines belonging to the monastery of Galataki, also in the neighbourhood of Limni, Eubœa. All these quarries are worked above-ground, the veins being of great thickness and the mineral of excellent quality.

Marble Quarries

The Anglo-Greek Magnesite Company, Ltd., works magnesite mines at St. John, upon the island of Eubœa, the area operated being 5,000 acres. Dividends amounting to 8 per cent. and 10 per cent. have been distributed.

The Greek Iron Ore Corporation, Ltd., working iron mines in the commune of Lorymnos, Department of Phthiotide, and the Greek Minerals Concessions, Ltd., were both formed with British capital.

The only traces of petroleum so far found in Greece—and these are unpromising—are at Keri in Zante. Both Pliny and Herodotus mention the wells, so that there is nothing new about the discovery. A concession for working them was obtained by the London Oil Development Company, Ltd., of Philpot Lane, London, E.C.

The marble quarries at Dionysius in Attica have been worked for the past fifteen years by British enterprise. The same firm which to-day owns the quarries and commenced operations under the title of "Messrs. Marmor, Ltd.," was reorganised in February, 1911; but since then it has been reconstructed, and is now known as the Grecian Marbles (Marmor), Ltd. The capital to-day stands at £200,000, divided into £1 shares. The company owns the whole of the white marble quarries at Dionysius; the blue quarries at Kokinerra; the red marble quarries at Mani, near Cape Matapan; the green quarries on the island of Tinos; the variegated marble (pink and yellow) quarries upon the island of Skyros; the variegated marble (green, black, and white) resembling Cipollino, on the island of Eubœa and the ancient famous quarries at Paros, from which flesh-coloured marble is obtained. Other quarries are those in the Peloponnesus (black marble), and at Argos, Naxos, &c., which latter at present are not being worked, and finally, the famous quarries at Casambala, near Larissa, in Thessaly, which rank among the most ancient of all Grecian-worked marble deposits.

All the quarries were worked by the ancient Greeks in a greater or less degree, notably, perhaps, those of the Pentelican group, from which came the material for the Parthenon, &c. There are over twenty quarries worked at Dionysius, and under ordinary circumstances the number of men employed is from 200 to 300, which number during the busy season is increased to between 400 and 500. There are five British overseers employed, and these receive salaries ranging from £3 to £4 per week; one interpreter and five Greek overseers, who are paid from 200 to 250 dr. (say £8 to £10) per month, whilst the many boys and workmen employed receive from 1.50 to 7 dr. per day, according to the particular work done.

The working of the quarries at Dionysius has been considerably hampered by the attitude of the Attic Railway, which has proved neither sympathetic nor encouraging to the British company. The rates for transport which the railway company charges the Grecian Marbles (Marmor), Ltd., are said to be excessively high, amounting to 4.50 dr. per ton, which is the maximum charge according to the convention in existence, from Kephissia to Piræus, the marble company providing its own rolling-stock and conveying the marble from the quarries to Kephissia upon its own line. But for the fact that the Grecian Marbles (Marmor), Ltd., is entirely dependent upon the Attic Railway, it is claimed that it might have proved a more successful enterprise than has been the case.

But probably a true explanation may be found in the extremely high management expenses which have to be met, and which, were the business under Greek control, would be cut down to probably one-third. This is a failing by no means peculiar to English concerns in Greece, for it occurs in connection with most British-owned limited liability enterprises managed by Britishers abroad.

Governmental supervision is perhaps a little more

severe in Greece than in Great Britain so far as quarrying operations are concerned, and operatives are very carefully looked after. It happens that the marble company has been somewhat handicapped, and by the rigorous control in this direction finds itself unable to move very far ahead. Last year, for instance, owing to the decision announced by an official declaring that the light railway belonging to the company was unsafe, the work at Dionysius was stopped for two or three days, and the intervention of the British Minister had to be invoked before operations could be resumed. The Government have rightly or wrongly insisted upon the mineral railway being maintained in the same state of efficiency as a passenger line. The private railway of the Grecian Marbles is not, however, a passenger line, although it does carry passengers, consisting mainly of the staff of the company, between the quarries at Dionysius and the Attic Railway's station at Strophili. Whatever cause of complaint the management of the company may have in regard to this matter will hardly be endorsed by those of its employees who travel over the line. On the other hand, they are probably deeply grateful to the Government inspector for protecting them against some possible accident.

Workmen's compensation, provided for in the Government regulations in relation to quarries, bears particularly upon the operations of this company, as although the pension in the event of a permanent injury to a workman, or the annuity of a widow whose husband's death had been caused through an accident occurring whilst at work in the quarries, is defrayed in the proportion of one-half by the Government and one-half by the company, in the former instance there is no regular scale of compensations, and should the Government decide that the injured man, even though he may have been merely deprived of the partial use of a hand by the loss of two or three fingers, is not in a fit condition to perform the same amount of work

as he carried out before the accident occurred, and is consequently unable to earn the same wage, he is entitled to claim as compensation one-half of the full amount previously paid to him in wages ; this becomes a pension for life. The company is also liable for hospital fees. The compensation list of the Grecian Marbles (Marmor), Ltd., amounts already to between £800 and £900 a year, which is a permanent charge upon the firm.

British coal has practically a monopoly in Greece, the annual importation into the kingdom and the islands amounting to over 60,000 long tons, distributed over the ports of Patras, 30,000 tons ; Kalamata, 12,000 tons ; Corfu, 9,000 tons ; and lesser ports, 9,000 tons. In spite of this considerable and valuable trade between Great Britain and Greece, one may seek in vain for any mention of it in the average consular report.

The classes of coal imported consist of bituminous, anthracite, and briquettes, the latter, however, coming almost as much from Belgium, and latterly from Holland, as from Cardiff. This latter town supplies the bituminous in part, Newcastle sending the remainder ; a very — almost an insignificant amount— comes from Turkey. Swansea contributes the anthracite.

All of these consignors are now destined to meet with competition upon the part of United States coal-owners, who have long cast covetous eyes upon this British trade, and have done all that their knowledge and influence can effect to overcome it. Up till now their efforts have proved unavailing, for United States coal remains practically unknown in Greece.

The great handicap which the Americans have to face is the long haul over the ocean, but there seems no reason why, if the coal were really wanted, it could not come over as ballast in the weekly emigrant steamers which carry large crowds of Greeks to the United States and bring so few of them back.

Coal

As a matter of fact American coal is inferior in quality to the British product, and no amount of boosting or *réclame* will alter that drawback. The few samples which have been sent to Patras and the Piræus from the United States have created anything but a favourable impression, and no orders have followed the enterprise. Nevertheless, we are told that British coal is to be faced with American competition. British exporters may still sleep peacefully in their beds.

Bituminous coal is delivered at the Greek ports at from 18s. to 30s. per ton, according to the particular quality, and is used for manufacturing and in the gas-works, as well as for fuelling ships. Since most of the houses in the kingdom are without grates which burn coal, little or no amount is consumed for heating, the brazier, which burns charcoal, taking the place of the cosy and warmth-yielding coal fire.

Anthracite coal, as already mentioned, comes from Swansea, and it is delivered at between 28s. and 36s. per ton. Only limited quantities are imported, and these are used in offices and some few private houses (mostly those of English people) where stoves or grates have been installed.

The briquettes pass on their way to the railway depôts, being used for coaling the locomotives. They are found to be more economical than lump-coal, and occupy less room in the engines' tenders. These briquettes are delivered at the ports from 17s. 6d. to 28s. per ton.

CHAPTER XXIV

Labour conditions—Submission to ill-treatment—Government reform promised—Factories—Sanitary conditions—Hours of labour—Strikes uncommon—Trade unionism—Relation with employers—Child labour—M. Benachi's Bill—Legislation objected to—Characteristics of Greek workmen—Domestic servants—Wages—English governesses—General labour and salaries rates.

A REMARKABLE feature of labour conditions in Greece has been the almost unknown disposition to strike until within the past two or three years. Discontent of a kind no doubt exists; indeed, from the conditions which prevail in some towns where much manual labour is largely employed, it is inevitable that a spirit of resentment at the prevailing situation should be felt. I say this in spite of the usually resigned and *laissez-aller* disposition of the average Greek working-man and woman, who, after so many generations of servitude to the tyrannical Turk, seemed to have lost a good deal of that spirit of rebellion which is to-day predominant throughout Europe, not alone against all rules of law and order, but against domination of any kind.

The character of the Greeks since the days of Demosthenes certainly seems to have become rather more pacific, and, since those of the Paleologi, less resentful of injury. I once observed with some surprise in Patras, a town not remarkable for the pacifical character of its inhabitants, a crowd composed of several hundred men and boys, and containing among the former many uniformed soldiers, beaten back unresistingly by a vulgar athlete who was with his wife and child performing in the public streets for half-

pence. This man made use of a long-thonged whip which he indiscriminately applied to the legs and feet of the people who pressed too closely about him and his troupe. Not one individual among the crowd apparently resented this outrage. It is not very doubtful as to what would have occurred had such treatment been meted out to an English crowd—even of the meanest order.

The Government has not as yet found time to seriously take in hand the improvement of the working-class so far as the efficient superintendence of sanitary conditions, the provision of sufficient light and air, and the regulation of hours of labour. No doubt this will be carried out sooner or later, and it may be hoped for the sake of the thousands of men, women, and young children who toil under such unhealthy conditions that it may be sooner.

The number of new and well-built factories in the country are few. I have in various sections of this volume noted the more important among them, and it is unnecessary, therefore, to make further detailed reference here. On the other hand, one frequently encounters spinners, weavers, machinists, and other factory hands, both men and women, toiling for long hours in dark, gloomy, and ramshackle buildings, without any seating accommodation, sanitary provisions, or even a place where they can enjoy an occasional wash. They leave their work begrimed and dirty in the evening, and they arrive in an equally unsavoury condition to resume it upon the following morning. The dull and fetid atmosphere in which they slave away the wearisome hours of the day is wholly unrelieved by proper conveniences, and the miserable appearance presented by many of the workers sufficiently indicates the heavy strain which is put upon their constitutions. The brilliant sunshine seldom penetrates to these small and unwholesome factories—especially in some which I visited in Kalamata and

Trikkala—while not even the pure air of the Grecian climate is permitted to find its way into the close and stuffy apartments where the preparation of human food, such as bread, macaroni, olive-oil, and dried raisins, is carried on, in addition to the manufacture of other commodities.

As will be observed from the particulars which have been afforded in a number of selected cases, which may be taken, however, as applying generally throughout the kingdom, the hours of labour are extremely long, and such as exist, to my knowledge at least, in few other countries of the world. The benefits of an eight-hour day are not even dreamed of by the average Greek factory-hand, the usual hours of work being ten; upon occasions, however, they extend to twelve and even fourteen, but when so prolonged no extra payment is expected or offered.

As I have already observed, until within the past few years strikes have been unknown; those which have taken place, and which in seriousness do not exceed three in number, have been confined to the capital. To these occurrences little public attention was devoted at the time, and the strikers, although they in some instances secured at least in part their demands, found the experience so costly in the end that it is doubtful whether the practice is ever likely to become popular.

In the cases referred to, the establishments affected were: (1) a tobacco-factory, where the introduction of labour-saving devices provoked a revolt, which, however, proved unavailing, and ended in the machinery being introduced; (2) an ice-factory, where the low rate of wages paid had long been a cause of grievance—here an amelioration of the workmen's conditions was finally granted; (3) a railway strike on the Piræus, Athens, and Peloponnesus line, due to an official's dismissal which had proved unpopular and which was subsequently cancelled. In all three of these cases

the strike of employees lasted no longer than four days, and during that time no cases of violence occurred, neither was the progress of law or order disturbed, and the public was but little if at all inconvenienced.

Trade unionism has made decided headway in Greece of late years, and most industries now have their societies and their unions which, as a whole, are skilfully and efficiently organised. Each union has its president, and each president forms one of a general council of advice and administration, with its head-quarters in Athens, and this body, again, has its supreme president. So far as I could learn, this council has not, upon any occasion, misused its powers in any way, and the employers of labour have had but little reason to complain of its operations so far as their particular interests are concerned. Strangely enough, women have hitherto been denied admission to the trade unions; and I could find no instance of any having been granted membership.

The relations existing between employers and employees are, notwithstanding, thoroughly satisfactory as a rule; and when any acute question of controversy does arise, it is generally settled amicably and without indulgence in any threats or even an idea of a general strike upon the one hand, or a lock-out upon the other.

Some employers show the greatest consideration for their sick and injured workmen, and although there is effective no law in Greece which compels an employer to compensate an injured servant, and while the people themselves are either too indifferent or too poor to be able to afford an insurance policy upon their own account, I have learned of several instances in which the proprietor of an industrial establishment has pensioned a man, when permanently injured, and has cared for him and paid his weekly wages in full during the time of his temporary indisposition.

The Greeks are by nature a kind-hearted and humane

people, and they would regard the performance of such an act not by any means as a virtue, but merely as an ordinary and, indeed, indisputable duty governing the relations between employer and employed.

The hours of child labour are also, I am glad to learn, to form a subject for Governmental inquiry and eventual legislation. In many of the factories which I visited, and especially those located in Thessaly, in Arcadia, and in Messenia, I observed with much surprise the extremely tender age at which the small workers were employed—boys of from 8 to 12 and girls from 6 or 7 years to young women of between 16 and 17. No doubt the extra wages which they earn, small as they are, and ranging from 50 lepta (5d.) to 1 dr. (10d.) *per diem*, form a welcome and necessary addition to the limited family treasury; but it seems pitiable that such young children should be confined for ten or twelve hours a day in such an atmosphere and at such arduous labour, when they should be gambolling in the superb sunshine without, or, better still, be seated in school undergoing a much-needed moral and intellectual training.

A Bill, introduced by the first Minister of Commerce, M. E. Benachi, was to have been introduced this year (1912) for the protection of young workers in factories, limiting the age of employment to eight years and the hours of work also. The same ex-Minister is responsible for the introduction of another necessary measure dealing with the limitation of the day's labour for all other industries and all working-people, the eight-hour day being favoured and being that which will be doubtless finally adopted.

I do not anticipate an easy passage, however, for this or any measure, since there are a number of workers, male and female, with whom I discussed the subject who are emphatically opposed to any interference with their liberty to work overtime if they choose and at any hour of the night if they must. If

they work fewer hours, they contend that even lower wages would be paid to them, while the cost of production, by increasing, would add to the already heavy cost of living.

There is no desire among the Greek working-classes for that leisure which the British working-man demands, and which he usually devotes to a visit to public-houses. The mildest dissipation known to the native labourer or artisan is to pass a few hours —if he has them to spare, but not to create them by wilful idleness—sitting outside or inside one of the numerous cafés which exist, and there discussing—not always amiably, it must be admitted—local politics. He knows and cares nothing about "culture," although he is shrewd enough and quiet enough to follow the trend of public events and the consequences which legislation is destined to have upon his particular interests. Culture, it has been laid down, must emanate from a desire upon the part of the individual to improve himself and his surroundings. And the Greek of the working-classes has small desire to do either.

The monotony of work is no hardship to him, and in any case he is so accustomed to the demands of his employer that he has forgotten, if he ever knew how, to resent them. A good workman can always make reasonable terms with his master; and, as I have indicated, the relations prevailing between employers and employed are such that, so far as these are concerned (apart from any humane or sanitary considerations) the interference of the legislature is deemed not only unnecessary, but an injustice.

Domestic servants are neither difficult to obtain nor hard to keep in Greece. Few of those drawbacks to domestic service prevail there which characterise similar employment in England or in the United States. As a rule the maidservants are country-women who prefer town life, and become easily accustomed to its demands as well as to its privileges. Wages rank somewhat

high, comparing, indeed, very favourably with those paid in most European cities.

A good, plain cook will receive ordinarily the equivalent of £40 per annum, as well as board, lodging, washing allowance, and, if she needs it, a small quantity of native wines. A "thorough" cook may earn anything between £60 and £70. A competent housemaid will receive 40 dr. (£1 12s.) per month with full board and lodging, washing allowance, and a small quantity of common wine. A manservant's wages average 50 dr. (£2) per month, with board, lodging, washing allowance, and wine; while a coachman receives from £4 to £5 per month, with or without lodgment.

As a rule, Greek domestic servants are found faithful, and many of them have been resident in the same families for a great number of years. While they do not usually appear attired in smart livery or apparelled in any distinctive costume, they offer no objection to wearing either the one or the other. The usual indoor livery for footmen, *valets-de-chambre*, and other manservants, when any is worn at all, consists of a plain black swallow-tail or pilot jacket, dark trousers, and a white tie. Coachmen's liveries are mostly made in very sombre tints, without either buttons, coloured bindings, or gold braid, even the royal liveries being inconspicuous in either respect—except when worn upon State occasions. Then they are quite gorgeous.

A very considerable number of English governesses are to be met with in Greece, as is the case in Hungary, Servia, and Bulgaria. The best families in these countries consider an English instructress *de rigueur*, just as a great many British families still deem a French maid or a German governess indispensable in the complete educational training of young children at home. The wages paid are not very high, and the lot of an Englishwoman in a foreign family is not upon all occasions found to be a pleasant one. Upon several occasions in times past, disputes, and even distinct

grievances, have formed the subject of Consular inquiry and intervention; all young Englishwomen taking up engagements of this character in Greece would do well, therefore, to make careful inquiries, independent of the usually glowing but usually quite unreliable reports furnished by the different employment and scholastic agencies. Indentured labour of all kinds should likewise be submitted to the cognisance of the British Consul, and an agreement, *viséd* by the Consular Office, should in all cases being insisted upon.

The wages question generally has not as yet become very acute in Greece; nevertheless, the tendency is towards a demand for higher rates of pay, and inasmuch as the supply of practically every kind of labour —barring that offered by British governesses, who appear to be rather a drug in the market—is becoming more and more scarce as the tide of emigration grows more and more assertive, the increase will no doubt have to be conceded. I give the following rates, which I have ascertained represent the average amount of payments now made by employers; but necessarily these figures vary somewhat in the different departments—the farther from Athens, the lower the rates of payment made.

Labour.	Amount.	Time.
Office clerks	£8	per month
Stores clerks	£4	„ „
Domestic servants—men	£2 to £3	„ „
„ „ women... ...	£1 10s. to £2	„ „
Street car conductors	3s.	„ day
„ „ drivers	2s. 9d.	„ „
Currant pickers—men	3s. to 4s.	„ „
„ „ women	1s. 9d. to 2s.	„ „
Carpenters	3s. to 4s. 6d.	„ „
Cabinet-makers	3s. „ 4s. 6d.	„ „
Stevedores	7s. to 8s.	„ „
Ordinary labourers	2s. 9d. to 4s.	„ „
House painters	4s. to 8s.	„ „
Boatmen	3s. 6d. to 4s.	„ „
Field labourers—winter	2s.	„ „
„ „ spring	3s. to 4s.	„ „
„ „ summer	2s. 9d. to 4s.	„ „

CHAPTER XXV

British trade with Greece—Character of consumers—Preference for British manufactures—Archaic methods of business—First place on export and import lists—Improvement in 1910 and 1911—Tabular list of countries with their trade—British methods—Those of their competitors—Sale of British implements—Comparative trade figures.

BRITISH trade stands in a better relative position than that of other countries in the Near East. In Greece, as in other lands throughout the world—east and west—the people have learned over long years to trust the Britisher as they trust few other foreigners, to value his manufactured goods as the best and most conscientiously made to be obtained, and to depend upon his bulk-consignments being in every way equal to his samples.

It is in vain, however, that our consuls preach in their annual reports the doctrine of more perseverance and enterprise, the adoption of modern methods of conducting business, and the abandonment of those archaic arrangements which were perhaps good enough for our forefathers in the pre-railway, pre-telegraph, and pre-telephone days, but which are out of date and useless to-day.

If it be supposed by the average British trader that the people of Mid and Southern Europe are ignorant of latter-day commercial conditions, then they are woefully mistaken. The average Hungarian, Bulgarian, Servian, and Greek peasant is a thoroughly "live" and intelligent individual. He may not be able to read

MR. J. C. COOKE, H.B.M.'S CONSUL AT THE PIRÆUS (centre); MR. EDWARD G. BONAVIA, H.B.M. VICE-CONSUL AT ZANTE (left top); MR. A. B. COOKE, U.S. CONSUL AT PATRAS (right top); MR. A. L. CALOCHERINO, H.B.M.'S VICE-CONSUL AT CANDIA, CRETE (left bottom); MR. F. B. WOOD, I.S.O., H.B.M.'S CONSUL FOR THE MOREA (right bottom).

(See pp. 83, 84, 85.)

or to write his name, but he knows all about ploughs and reaping-machines; he can tell the difference between honest cotton cloth and a cheap imitation, and he will select without hesitation the wool which *is* wool and not a mixture of cotton and shoddy. In a word, he is a keen bargainer, a good judge of materials, and he knows what he wants and what he means to have.

The question may be asked, "Why, if he knows the difference between the good and the bad, between the genuine and the imitation, does he buy the cheap and the poorly made German or American article in preference to the admittedly superior, if more expensive, British-made goods?"

The answer is simple enough. Whereas the British manufacturer perpetuates the absurdity of sending out his samples quoted in "pounds, shillings, and pence," and measured in "yards, feet, and inches," or computed in "tons, hundredweights, quarters, pounds, and ounces," not one of which prices, measurements, or weights is understood by the average purchaser in these countries, the German and the American commercial representative — an English commercial traveller is almost as extinct a visitor as the dodo—is prepared to quote for anything and everything, no matter whether his firm makes it or not, and to submit his prices in the language and the easily computed figures of the country, at the same time offering terms of purchase and facilities of payment such as no British firm would consent even to discuss. Does this super-cautiousness in dealing with distant customers save the home manufacturer from incurring losses through granting long credits and incurring bad debts? Not a bit; for while exercising this unnecessary restriction in attempting to protect himself in one direction, his ignorance of the prevailing conditions, and his lack of enterprise, which prevents him from availing himself of the best advice which is his for the asking, causes

him to fall an easy victim to the professional swindler in the other.

It is to be feared that in common with other countries of the Near East, Greece has not only suffered from comparative neglect upon the part of British manufacturers, but likewise from a certain amount of misrepresentation by many careless writers who have come to this country, and after a hurried look round have departed with ill-formed and immature notions of its commercial character, which ideas they have subsequently presented as "sound conclusions" for the benefit of the public, who in the absence of any other information of a more reliable nature have accepted such statements as accurate.

The Greeks complain, and not without reason, of this doubtless unintentional but none the less disastrous misrepresentation, a circumstance which is double-edged in its effect, since, while it imposes a hardship upon the Greeks and prevents them from realising their natural ambition to increase their trade with foreign countries, it also keeps out of the field such a trading nation as ours, which, were it better informed, could increase to an unlimited extent its industrial relations with Greece.

The mere fact that the United Kingdom stands first upon the importation list of Greece, as well as in regard to its exportation to foreign countries, while satisfactory in itself, does not in any way detract from the injury which is occasioned, firstly by the lack of sufficient general knowledge regarding this country, and secondly in respect to the unfortunate misconception engendered in relation to its resources which prevails.

While it is pleasurable, as observed, to note that the United Kingdom occupies the premier position in regard to this country's import trade, it is not quite so satisfactory to observe that the total of such trade is gradually but surely diminishing. On the other hand, several European countries which have hitherto been

far behind us are slowly creeping up, and show unmistakable advance in their trade with Greece over a period of twelve months.

Countries.	Importations.		Exportations.	
	1908.	1909.	1908.	1909.
	£	£	£	£
Austria-Hungary ...	708,563	691,290	509,039	410,602
Belgium	168,389	117,509	164,310	276,413
Bulgaria	368,832	195,578	3,622	3,995
Egypt	30,598	36,359	298,037	300,558
France	431,248	382,716	449,853	305,426
Germany	589,661	491,285	406,086	406,374
Great Britain ...	1,441,124	1,245,075	1,064,115	1,015,414
Italy	240,943	236,027	367,219	234,603
Netherlands ...	109,366	111,569	377,033	321,367
Roumania	75,900	66,244	30,235	23,435
Russia	889,620	1,071,231	89,660	57,861
Switzerland ...	12,918	10,845	3,192	17,490
Turkey	568,340	465,959	229,239	255,425
United States ...	287,544	187,213	242,074	349,435
Various	261,276	193,068	196,806	99,078
Total ...	6,185,322	5,501,968	4,428,520	4,067,476

The conditions of the kingdom's imports and exports over the past fourteen years are seen from the accompanying table :—

Year.	Importations.	Exportations.	Total.
	Dr.	Dr.	Dr.
1911	172,202,194	140,902,651	313,104,845
1910	160,536,471	144,571,070	305,107,541
1909	137,549,244	101,686,905	239,236,149
1908	154,633,041	110,713,003	265,346,044
1907	149,067,753	117,620,197	266,687,950
1906	144,636,162	123,525,906	268,162,068
1905	141,756,053	83,691,166	225,447,219
1904	137,016,282	90,569,557	227,585,839
1903	137,494,499	85,924,197	223,418,696
1902	137,229,364	79,663,472	216,892,837
1901	140,506,210	93,993,818	234,500,028
1900	131,386,348	102,738,871	234,125,219
1899	131,258,749	93,802,818	225,061,567
1898	138,267,392	88,221,601	226,488,993

It must be understood that Greece is essentially an agricultural country, and it is in this direction especially that its future great development affords so attractive an opportunity for the investment of foreign capital as well as for foreign co-operation generally. My tour through the principal agricultural province and other parts of the country of Thessaly, during which period of travel I was enabled to visit some of the largest private estates as well as various small properties which are held by peasant owners, convinced me that here exist great possibilities for agricultural development, and consequently for the introduction of modern appliances, as well as for the scientific application of irrigation. In this latter direction the Government has already initiated some important steps, having obtained the consent of the Chamber of Deputies to the expenditure of something like 50,000,000 dr. (= £2,000,000 sterling) upon a complete and extensive system of irrigation.

As has already been pointed out, Thessaly is a vast and almost completely flat plain, rightly considered one of the richest—if among the latest—acquisitions of the Kingdom of Greece. This province became Grecian territory only in 1881, the cession of Thessaly and a very small part of Epirus by the Empire of Turkey having been brought about as the result of the "Conference of Constantinople."

To the casual observer's eye the plain of Thessaly may appear both monotonous and uninteresting, but, as a matter of fact, from an agricultural point of view it is one of the most promising territorial possessions of modern Greece. The wide-spreading, treeless plain is bounded on the west by the Mavro Vouni, or "Black Mountain," known in ancient times as Kynos Kephalæ, or "Dogs' Heads," and famous as the spot upon which was fought, in 197 B.C., a decisive battle between the Romans and King Philip V. of Macedon. Almost in the centre of this plain, and indicated by a bright blue

streak, is the immense Lake of Carla, the Boibeïs of the Ancients. The greater portion of this territory is capable of high agricultural development, and certain it is that its tobacco, which fetches the highest price, its cotton, which excels in purity and yield that of Egypt, and its grain, which is among the largest-eared and finest quality to be found in Europe, are grown here under the most primitive conditions. It is in connection with Lake Carla that the great irrigation scheme to be undertaken by the Government will be carried out.

Although at the present time, as we have seen already, the population of this district is far too small to enable agriculture to be undertaken upon anything like the scale anticipated, it is believed, and, I think, with good reason, that so soon as the irrigation scheme projected by the Government matures, and the vast Thessalian plain becomes, as it undoubtedly will become, the agricultural centre of Greece, there will be no lack of population, since emigrant Greeks will return from the quarters of Europe, where they are now scattered, and from the United States of America, where there are living over 300,000 of them, it is believed, in order to cultivate this their own productive land.

Here, then, should there be an excellent field for the products of British manufacturers of agricultural machinery and implements, for which an increasingly valuable market will eventually be found. That British machinery is not unknown in Greece is clear from the fact that for the last thirty years some few among the leading British manufacturers have been represented. For instance, Messrs. Marshall, Sons & Co., Ltd., of Gainsborough, have two agents in the kingdom, and Messrs. Clayton & Shuttleworth, Ltd., of Lincoln, are represented by one prominent house in Volo. The manufactures of Messrs. Ransomes, Sims & Jefferies, Ltd., of Ipswich, and, to a smaller extent, those of Messrs. Ruston, Proctor & Co., Ltd., of Lincoln, may be met with; but to avail themselves to the

fullest extent of the opportunities which this market undoubtedly offers—and will in the near future offer to an even greater degree—manufacturers must consent to abandon their present archaic methods of business, and come more freely into line with the manufacturers of other and more enterprising countries.

As an illustration of my contention, I cannot perhaps do better than quote one out of many instances which came to my knowledge during my investigations.

The prominent agricultural machinery manufacturing and importing firm of Messrs. M. C. Stamatopoulos & Sons, of Volo (Thessaly), and who are also agents for a number of foreign manufacturers of various kinds of machinery, called my attention to the inconvenience of the business methods of British firms as compared with those of German houses. Whereas the former object to incur even the trumpery expense of dispatching a mechanical engineer to Greece for the purpose of erecting and explaining to purchasers the manufacture of their particular class of threshing-machinery, for which there was likely to be a substantial demand, the different German houses not only promptly send a representative upon request, but consent to his remaining in the country for a period of at least twelve months in order to place his services at the disposal of all who may require them ; and this was the policy pursued, be it remembered, at a time when not a single machine of German manufacture had actually been sold in Greece.

My informant assured me that he was finally compelled to journey to England himself, and to personally interview the Lincoln firm which he represented, in order to induce them to send out a mechanical engineer to study the character of the country, and so to modify the construction of the threshing-machines which his house desired to import. In the end the firm referred to, dispatched—as mentioned—an engineer, but this individual remained in the country only a very brief

time, whereas the German representative was sent to live in the country for an unlimited period.

Apart from their unreasoning and incomprehensible objection to respond to local requirements in the character of the things which they manufacture, some British firms, it would appear, still turn their faces severely against the granting of credits ; in many cases, however, the risks of incurring financial loss are reduced to a minimum.

I have before me as I write the copies of two invoices, one submitted by a British firm in Sheffield for the amount of 447 drachmæ (£17 17s. 6d.), the articles supplied being certain small agricultural implement parts, and the other being from a German firm in Mannheim. At the foot of the British firm's invoice is inscribed : " Payment—cash on receipt less 2½ per cent. by cheque on London." The second invoice, which was from the German house (at Mannheim), is for an amount of 16,850 marks (£842 10s.), and thereon the arrangements for payment are set out as follows : " One-quarter of the amount after 6 months, one-quarter after 12 months, one-quarter after 18 months, and the final quarter after 24 months."

Thus, for an appreciably more important transaction the German house grants a credit extending over two years, against a prompt cash payment demanded by the British firm. This case is typical of the experience of the native importers from abroad, and surely it can only be a question of time when British manufacturers, excellent as the quality of their products undoubtedly is, will find themselves passed over entirely in favour of their more amenable and intelligent Teutonic rivals.

Upon inquiry I also found that in spite of the generous amount of credit which German houses usually accord to Greek importers, there has not been a single instance of their having lost anything by this extension. Glancing at the various accounts, which were un-

reservedly submitted for my inspection, it was obvious that the Germans have gained custom enormously during the past few years ; their goods may be met with in practically every hardware store throughout the kingdom.

It may be mentioned in this connection that in Bulgaria, Servia, and Austria-Hungary an almost similar state of affairs exists. If the German Consular Trade Reports be studied with care and attention, it will be further realised how greatly our Teutonic competitors have outdistanced British houses in these countries. Instances such as I have cited sufficiently afford the explanation.

The necessity of treating with more leniency and courteous consideration the large importing houses of these countries is apparently not realised by our home manufacturers. Not alone are they as a whole entirely ignorant of the financial standing of the establishments with whom they are asked to trade, but there exist, unfortunately, no means, either official or non-official, by which such ignorance can be enlightened. On the other hand, German manufacturers, as above indicated, not only dispatch their own capable and energetic representatives to the countries for the purpose of pursuing trade investigations, and incidentally of making themselves personally acquainted with the principals of the large importing houses, but the German Commercial Trade Bureau, which is a semi-official institution with its headquarters in Berlin, publishes frequent, and usually very complete, accounts of the various markets of the world, the information therein contained being (as is that of the United States Bureau of Statistics) open to all who care to avail themselves of it. Moreover, this information is quite up to date ; very different, indeed, in both character and utility to the customary "ancient history" which is published periodically in this country, sometimes by the British Board of Trade and at others by the Foreign Office in the form of Consular Reports.

CHAPTER XXVI

Athens—Population—Buildings—Prominent houses—Public edifices—Theatres—Greek dances—Cafés—Constitution Place—Royal palace—Public promenades—Phaleron, Old and New—Summer resorts—Hotel accommodation—Abstemious habits of Greeks—Afternoon teas becoming popular—Athens water supply—Aviation—Greek enthusiasm.

CONSIDERABLE difference of opinion has existed, and, in fact, still exists, as to whether the choice of Athens as the capital of the kingdom was altogether the best possible. Some thought, and yet think, that Patras, a place of great wealth, and possessing many geographical advantages, should have been selected. Other advocates there are who favour the claim of Corinth, mainly on account of its splendid situation, to have been chosen as the seat of Government; while still others regret the deprivation of Nauplia of its once proud position of the Hellenic capital.

Athens, however, after having had at least four kings of her own, and with a history which for splendour and distinction remains unsurpassed in the annals of the world, and after centuries of neglect, was chosen as the capital of the modern kingdom of Greece and endowed with its new dignity in the year of 1835, when its new king, Otto the Bavarian, came of age.

While it may be admitted that but for its splendid traditions Athens might not have been chosen as the permanent seat of Government, the selection has proved fairly successful, even if commerce and industry have failed to make it their headquarters. The town has

grown amazingly, and to-day it is extending in several new directions, while its attractiveness as a place of culture and residence is continually augmenting.

It is a little difficult to arrive at a definite conclusion regarding the number of inhabitants, but probably these do not amount to fewer than 180,000. How considerably this total has increased during the past few decades can be seen from the following figures: In 1870 the census proved that the population of the city was 44,570, in 1889 it was 107,846, in 1896 it had increased to 111,486, and in 1907 to 175,000. Besides Athens, there are twelve towns in the kingdom which have a population exceeding 10,000, the men outnumbering the women by only about 1⅛ per cent.

The Hellenic capital being comparatively new from one end to the other, the designers of the city have had an excellent opportunity of adopting an harmonious, if not altogether a homogeneous, design for the principal buildings. Many of these, which are not distinctly Grecian, present either examples of modern German or Italian architecture, the usually brilliant climate and pure atmosphere lending to them added effect and attractiveness. There are, for instance, the handsome palace of the Crown Prince Constantine, in the Boulevard d'Herode; that of Prince George, at the corner of the Rue de l'Académie and the Rue Democrite; that of Prince Nicolas, on the Boulevard de Kephissia; and that of Prince André, on the Ambelo Kipi. Most of these buildings are more or less in the Italian villa style, but constructed partly of pure white marble; while their gardens, if small, are tastefully laid out, and contain many graceful royal and other palms, lofty tree-ferns, and numerous orange-trees in full bloom or fruit. The lawns are kept in admirable condition, and most of the windows are draped with elegant materials.

A very large number of other fine houses are to be found in the Avenue Amélie, the Rue de l'Académie,

ATHENS: THE NATIONAL LIBRARY.
Constructed of Pentelic marble and erected by M. P. Vallianos, of Cephalonia, whose statue stands in front.
(See p. 315.)

the Rue Homère, and the Rue des Philhellènes. On the Place de la Constitution are some handsome private residences, including that of M. St. Skouloudes, the wealthy retired banker, whose house adjoins the Hôtel de la Grande Bretagne. The elegant house built by the great archæologist, Dr. Heinrich Schliemann, on the Boulevard de l'Université, is made entirely of marble brought from Mount Hymettos or Mount Pentelicus. Mme. Schliemann, his widow, still occupies it, and entertains there fairly lavishly. The house of the Archæological Society to the right of it, and a little farther on the Roman Catholic Church, the latter a Romanesque structure with a wide flight of marble steps and a spacious vestibule of the same material, are other remarkable buildings in this thoroughfare.

Many of the finest public structures in Athens owe their existence and their ample endowment to the munificence of wealthy Greek philanthropists. The Academy of Science, given by the late Baron Sina, of Vienna, is built entirely of Pentelic marble, profusely adorned with sculptures, paintings, and gilding, but all in perfect taste. The University, which adjoins, being separated only by some beautiful semi-tropical gardens, was built in 1837. Then comes a third imposing structure—the Public Library, also of Pentelic marble, and the gift of M. P. Vallianos, of Cephalonia, whose statue suitably adorns the front.

In the Rue du Stade is the white marble building occupied by the Bank of Athens, and near the Place de la Concorde the more extensive but less pretentious National Bank building. Yet another imposing structure is the Polytechnic Institute, built of marble both entirely paid for and handsomely adorned by a number of wealthy Greeks. The National Archæological Museum is a very large edifice in the Rue de Patisia. Several blocks of new buildings, in the construction of which the beautiful white Pentelic marble again plays an important part, are being erected in different parts

of Athens, which is gradually becoming a city of palaces.

The number of the marble-built houses and institutes is accounted for by the abundance of the material found both at Mount Pentelicus and at Mount Hymettos. The former's quarries were worked for several centuries by the ancient Greeks. The material is very fine ingrain, and of a brilliant white colour with a slight yellowish tinge, owing, no doubt, to the presence of iron. Under the influence of time, as is seen in the many ruins which surround Athens, this marble assumes a rich tawny-orange colour. The street kerbs, the lintels of the humblest residences, most of the street pavements, the steps and staircases of hotels and all public buildings, as well as the tables in the restaurants, are made of this handsome marble; but the supplies are apparently inexhaustible.

Athens is uncommonly well off in regard to places of public amusement—of theatres there are no fewer than sixteen. These include, however, several cafés-chantants of the better kind. The Athenæ and the Alhambra are both fine houses, and offer acceptable entertainments. The Apollon and the Arniotés are no less reputable, while other establishments are the Variétés, the Dexamens, the Thésée, the Neapolis, the Omonia, the Panhellenion, the Paradis, the Syngross, and the Syntagmatos. There is no fixed prices at these different houses, the entrance fees varying according to the particular place of amusement. Generally, however, the prices range from 50 lepta (about 5d.) for the cheapest seat to 1, 2, and 3 dr. (10d. to 2s. 6d.).

The Municipal Theatre, in the Place de la Concorde, and immediately facing the National Bank, is a large and handsome tawny-coloured building, constructed by Ziller. The Royal National Theatre, in the Rue Constantin, offers Greek dramas and also successful plays adapted and translated from the French, German,

Italian, and English. The Théâtre de la Ville also produces Italian and French operas, while some altogether admirable representations of old Greek plays may be seen here. Upon the Place de la Constitution is the Summer Theatre, and among other playhouses are the Théâtre Nea Skené, the theatre at the New Phaleron, where French operettas are given, and a host of cinematograph shows, which seem here, as elsewhere, to do a very prosperous trade.

The Athenians are by no means inclined to retire early, and both their places of amusement, cafés, and supper-rooms, as well as many of their social clubs, remain open until the early hours of the morning. Nevertheless, there is little or no noise of traffic occasioned in the streets, the movement of both pedestrians and carriages being carried on in a singularly quiet and orderly manner, when compared with the hideous uproar which proceeds uninterruptedly in the crowded, narrow, and ill-smelling thoroughfares of Constantinople.

The residents of houses and hotels immediately adjoining the cafés have, however, to complain of the continual buzz of conversation, the clashing of cups and glasses, and other noises incidental to the gathering of talkative and sometimes highly disputant companies.

There is, fortunately, a good choice of hotels in the capital, although outside of it the visitor must be prepared to meet with disappointment. In Athens the Hôtel de la Grande Bretagne, kept and admirably managed by M. and Mme. E. Lampsas, and the Palace Hotel, as well maintained by M. Vandycke, may be thoroughly well recommended.

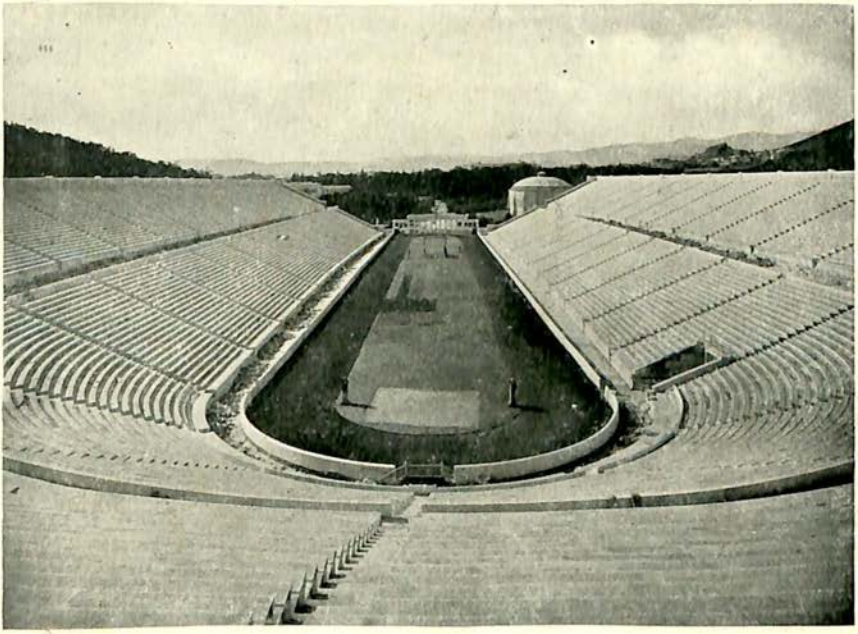
The Place de la Constitution is the centre of Athenian city movement. Here are situated not only the spacious but unpretentious Royal Palace, but several of the large hotels and popular cafés. The wide, open space in front of the Royal residence is used occasionally for military displays and regularly for public promenades,

military bands playing there upon certain days of the week throughout the year.

The king's residence is an almost square building, constructed in the true German style of architecture, having been designed by one Gärtner, of Munich, in 1835. The greater part of the material used is limestone, but many of the pillars and other supports are of Pentelic marble. It is fortunate that there is no window tax in Athens for which the king would be liable; otherwise the amount which would become payable would be something enormous. The number of windows is out of all proportion to the size of the building or to the provision of doors, and the appearance afforded is one of coldness and desolation. A great deal of this effect, however, is overcome by the beautiful grounds which surround the palace. In front of the building is the large open space to which I have above referred as being a public pleasure-ground, laid out with olive and oleander-trees and other southern growths; while a handsome marble fountain, the happy playground of innumerable children, occupies the centre. The royal gardens, which are also generously thrown open to the public at certain hours of the afternoon by order of his Majesty, and varying in summer and winter, were laid out by the instructions of the late Queen Amelia, the ground originally having been an arid and apparently hopeless waste. Now numberless lofty trees afford abundant shelter from the glare of the sun, and as they are planted in regular and serried rows they afford pleasant walks, which are much appreciated during the intensely hot months of the year. The gardens are also well watered, a special supply of the liquid being obtained from the old channel which was used in the days of ancient Greece. Probably this channel supplied the baths which were originally here, and several remains of which are still in good preservation.

The south part of the royal gardens are, perhaps, the

ATHENS. THE NATIONAL ARCHÆOLOGICAL MUSEUM, BUILT 1866–1889. (See p. 319.)



ATHENS: THE STADIUM, OCCUPYING SAME SITE AS THE ANCIENT STRUCTURE OF 330 B.C.

The present building was restored by M. George Averoff, at a cost of £160,000, 1896–1906.

[To face p. 319.

more attractive, being the most thickly wooded, and therefore the more secluded. Here are erected several fine statues and busts of eminent Greeks, such as that of the luckless Johannes Kapodistrias, the first President of the Greek Republic, who was assassinated in 1831. Undeterred by this fate, his brother Augustine succeeded him, only, however, to resign the position—a singularly ungrateful one apparently—after a few months of tenancy. But there is no statue erected to him. Athens was not at this time the capital, although it became so some four years later.

The guard at the Royal Palace is composed of a detachment of the Evzonoi regiment, comprising fifty men, including a sergeant-major, two sergeants, and two corporals. The Palace guard is under the immediate command of the head of the Royal household, and is paid by the Royal treasury. The men comprising the detachment are carefully chosen from the different regiments, and are remarkable for their fine physique. They usually remain on duty at the Palace until the end of their military service.

Athens presents a remarkably gay and animated scene on Sundays and holidays, the whole population, usually well-dressed and well-behaved, turning out to promenade, listen to the music provided by military bands, and to regale themselves at the numerous open-air cafés. The public park, facing the Avenue Amelia, and thence around the handsome Zappeion building, would appear to be the favourite sauntering-place, crowds collecting here from an early to a late hour of the afternoon, passing to and fro in orderly but kaleidoscopic coloured array. On the terrace of the building—which is devoted to the exhibition of Greek industries and manufactures—is to be found, incongruously enough, a café. This is generally very well patronised, and as a consequence the prices are exceedingly high and the attendance exceedingly bad.

It is amusing in the extreme to watch, upon the

occasions of these public gatherings, the long and sinuous lines of people, some apparently belonging to the aristocratic ranks of Greece, others as obviously of the working-classes, with a liberal sprinkling of khaki-clad soldiers, blue-uniformed sailors, and an unusually large number of gaily apparelled officers of high military rank, streaming under the ancient Arch of Hadrian—a lofty and still substantial gateway standing some 60 ft. in height and having a width of 44 ft. Here, where the boundary line of ancient Athens was once marked, where the rough-and-ready troops of Hadrian were wont to escort their fiery chief upon his way, and beneath the handsome Corinthian columns of which many a gallant military array must have passed by, now congregate the more prosaic "modern" women, in their ungainly hobble-skirts and impossible hats, perambulators with their infantile charges and much-bedizened nurse attendants; over-dressed young swells and swaggering majors, little dreaming of the scenes which, some 1,800 years ago, were enacted here, a notable spot still bearing the remains of an entablature which discloses that "This is the city of Hadrian and *not* of Theseus." How many among this gay and thoughtless throng know aught of Hadrian or even of Theseus?

With the exception of Old and New Phaleron, Athens possesses no suburban resorts, and in this respect it is rather worse off than most capitals. Phaleron faces the Bay, and is situated about half an hour's run from Athens by the electric tramway, as well as by the Athens-Piræus electric railway. The position is a remarkably open and agreeable one, the sole drawback being the absence of shade, scarcely a single tree being found here. Neither do the inhabitants seem to attach much importance to the cultivation of gardens, the few which exist being found between Athens and Phaleron, and scarcely any within the radius of the town itself. As a compensation, however, there are

some handsome marine walks and at least two large bathing establishments. The place generally presents an unfinished appearance, and the absence of any shops or places of amusement, either in Old or New Phaleron, renders a few days' stay there usually sufficient for the visitor.

Many Athenians, however, pass the whole of the summer months at this place, travelling between there and the capital as often as may be necessary. Upon Sundays and holidays hundreds of visitors come out to take luncheon and tea at one or other of the many restaurants and cafés which may be found there, the road from the capital being an exceptionally good one and suitable for motor-cars or horse-drawn vehicles. The Acteon Hotel is exteriorly a handsome and commodious establishment facing the sea, but the rates, especially during the summer season, are very high, while the attendance is none of the best, and the furnishing arrangements extremely poor.

The visitors who patronise this hotel and the smaller cafés of an afternoon and evening rarely take strong drinks, the usual beverage being a small cup of black coffee, invariably accompanied by a glass of water and, as often as not, by a cigarette. Sweet cakes are also popular, and many of these are consumed with no other concomitant than a glass of cold water. Afternoon tea is most popular with British visitors, although the Athenians are gradually becoming more to like the beverage served up in the true English style, with cold milk, lump sugar, and plenty of bread and butter or small cakes.

It was in the month of February, 1912, that the public of Athens witnessed, for the first time in their lives, a full-sized aeroplane circle around the classic summit of the Acropolis, skim swiftly down the long, straight street the Rue du Stade, make one or two graceful evolutions in the air, and then plane down with marvellous ease and dignity to the adjoining open

ground. The aeronaut, M. Argyropoulos, is a young and enthusiastic airman. Among the first of his passengers was M. Vénizélos, the Prime Minister, who without the slightest hesitation consented to accompany the young—and at that time but little-experienced—aviator in his new machine.

To-day the kingdom can boast of four fully licensed airmen, M. Argyropoulos having also several pupils of whom he has high hopes. M. Alex. Casamaulakis, who secured his certificate in France quite lately, is now pursuing his favourite pastime at Athens upon his Blériot monoplane. Another enthusiastic pilot of the air is M. Christodoulos, also a resident of Athens, who has studied aviation in Vienna.

The Government has purchased three military aeroplanes from France, and is establishing factories for others in Greece itself. In September last (1912) a French engineer arrived in Athens to superintend the works.

As will be observed under Chapter VI., devoted to a description of the Greek army, the Prime Minister has done a great deal towards the establishment of an aviation corps under the advice of the French Military Mission. Altogether aviation would seem to have a great future in Greece, the people having taken enthusiastically to the new method of progression and the country generally being particularly well adapted to trials and long journeys.

Another proof of the interest evinced in aerial flight by the Greeks is the offer made to the Dayton Aero Club, in Washington, U.S.A., to erect a monument to the Wright brothers (who first flew upon a machine heavier than air) upon the identical spot from which they first arose. The monument is to take the form of two graceful Corinthian columns of pure Pentelican white marble, sculptured by Greek artists, and to be sent upon a Greek boat from the Piræus to the United States.

Athens

For some years past the people of Athens have been concerned in the discussion relating to a new and more perfect water supply, the present service being found both insufficient in quantity as well as far from satisfactory in quality. But finality in discussion is not yet. There have been three schemes proposed for supplying the city with pure drinking water. The first project is known as the "Stymphalia Scheme," in connection with which the National Bank of Greece commissioned several distinguished engineers to enter carefully into the matter and to make all the necessary surveys and examinations. An Austrian engineer, Herr Kistner, was employed, and under his supervision numerous surveys were made and copious plans were prepared. The scheme comprises the bringing of water to Athens from Lake Stymphalia, which is situated in the Peloponnesus, as well as the drainage of the city. It is estimated that the double service would involve an expenditure of 50,000,000 dr. (£2,000,000).

A second scheme, known as the "Melas," comprises the utilisation of water from the Melas River, which is situated upon the property of the Lake Copais Company, Ltd. In order to adopt this project it would be necessary to raise the water at its source some 300 ft., and to carry this out effectually some expensive machinery would be necessary. In spite of this, however, it is believed by some that the scheme would prove less costly and far more satisfactory than the first-mentioned project. It would also overcome the all-important question of a restricted water supply, while the quality of the Melas water is undoubtedly of the finest.

The third scheme referred to calls for the improvement of the existing waterworks and the construction of barrages upon the Attic Plain. A complete survey and an estimate of the expenses in connection with this project have not yet been returned, but it is supposed that the cost would prove lower than that of

either of the other two schemes mentioned. There, however, prevails some little doubt as to the supply of water being found sufficient, and the ultimate success of the engineering operations of the undertaking is also said to be questionable.

The present water supply of Athens is estimated at a yield of 100 litres per second, which it is proposed to increase to a minimum of 600 per second. The Melas scheme would provide an unfailing supply of 2,000 litres per second all the year round.

It is interesting to note that the present supply of water to the capital, which is drawn from Mount Parnes, situated twelve miles from Athens, is carried over a portion of the same aqueduct which was originally constructed by the Roman Emperor Hadrian, about A.D. 119. It was the same enterprising monarch, as may be remembered, who constructed the wall between the Solway and the Tyne in order to secure the Roman provinces in Britain from the incursions of the Caledonians. In those days they built well and built strongly, as the remains of our own northern walls and those of the Parnes aqueduct sufficiently testify.

CHAPTER XXVII

Athens (*continued*)—Improving the city—Tramway extensions—Motor-cars for the public—Tramway systems—Phaleron service—Climate—Exceptional winter of 1911–12—Athens under snow—Provincial severity—Sufferings of the poor—Average temperatures—Funerals—Strange sights in Athens—Burial services—Baptisms—Marriage ceremonies—Cost of living—Prices current—Greek coffee—Afternoon teas.

SLOW but certain progress is being made in further beautifying Athens, the utmost interest being taken in the scheme by the present Government, which may be depended upon to find the amount of money needed. And at no time in its financial history has the country been better able to afford the expense. New and handsome edifices are going up in many different directions as the result of private enterprise. New avenues are also being planned, notably that which will be known as the "Pericles-Asparia," and another to be called the "Parthenon." These improvements are to cost the sum of £250,000, and are Government undertakings.

Since the electric tram line extended its services to the port of Piræus, a distance of 10 kilometres from Athens, many people have erected villas and large houses upon the route, which, like that of Kephissia, is becoming a favourite residential neighbourhood. There is also the Piræus-Athens electric railway, which serves the same district, while the main road between the port and the capital is maintained in so excellent a condition that the whole distance can be driven in a vehicle in less than an hour.

A concession was granted last winter to an Englishman, representing a small syndicate, for the establishment of a motor-car service between Athens and Piræus, the recipient undertaking to widen the present roadway by 4 metres (1 metre = 3·37 feet); to pitch, macadamise, and keep same in good order; and to run well-equipped cars for the transport of passengers only every ten minutes. The fare is fixed at 20 lepta, about 2d. per passenger.

It is a little difficult to see how this fare can pay the *entrepreneur*, especially in view of the already existing competition of the expeditious electric railway and the slower but surer electric tramway. However, the new scheme has probably been worked out to a logical conclusion, so that there should be small room for scepticism. The travelling public, at any rate, will benefit by so pleasant and economical a means of passing between the capital and the port—in fine weather.

An increasingly large number of motor-cars—mostly of French and German construction—now use this fine road. Unfortunately I know of not a single British-made machine as yet, although some—or at least one or two—may possibly exist. The import tax upon automobiles, amounting to something like £80 for a fairly good machine, necessarily renders the dealings in these conveyances somewhat restricted. But there are so many wealthy inhabitants in Athens and the neighbourhood that the question of a few pounds' duty more or less is not deemed a very great impediment. At any rate, a firm of importers of German and French automobiles so informed me.

The Athens tramways are an undoubted boon to those who must travel about the city, although they occupy an altogether unequal part of some of the narrow streets, and render life rather trying to those individuals whose living or sleeping apartments are situated anywhere upon the line of route. Much unnecessary clanging of

bells and heavy, lumbering passage over points occasion a din which ceases neither during the daytime nor during the watches of the night.

The system comprises eight different routes and fifteen separate lines, each route being designated by a different coloured shield, which is carried in a conspicuous position, in addition to a large plate number visible a long way distant, by the cars. Thus the pink shield means the direction of the Zappeion ; the brown shield indicates the Theseion station ; the light-blue shield signifies Ampelokepi, and the dark-green shield the direction of Hippokrates. There are also dark-blue, grey, red, and crimson shields, all inviting passengers to travel to every quarter of the city. The speed is high, and the fares are distinctly moderate.

The network of lines, which has but recently been completed, embraces a length of 43,250 metres. There are five lines in Piræus of 15,000 metres in length, and one line from Athens to Old and New Phaleron, a seaside resort, of 10,900 metres in length.

There is a steam tramway, which conducts a service every half-hour to the coast, alternately to the left where the cars run to Old Phaleron, and to the right to New Phaleron, the two terminal stations, which are also connected by a line skirting the coast. There are likewise some omnibuses and chars-à-banc (mainly patronised by the peasant class) plying between one side of the city and the other.

The company's receipts increased in 1911 to the sum of 2,512,644, as against 2,361,614 dr., or an improvement upon the twelve months of 151,030 dr.

The winter of 1911-12 proved to be the most severe known for many years, or, indeed, since Greece became an independent kingdom. Strangely enough, the most intense cold was experienced in the provinces, while Athens escaped the most severe part of winter's visitation, and rejoiced in an abundance of sunshine. The record of one week in January last was as follows : On

Monday it snowed; on Tuesday and Wednesday it snowed, while a bitter wind lashed the face with frozen flails of ice; on Thursday the gloom of the sky was unrelieved, and the cold continued to be absolutely piercing; while on Saturday and Sunday rain and sleet fell occasionally, but finally gave place to genial warmth and peerless blue skies, which predominate ordinarily for nearly three hundred days of the year. That week's record was the worst experienced during the entire winter.

Not for many years had Mount Hymettos, which stands 3,370 feet high, been so completely covered with snow. The majestic, treeless ridge, with abrupt, abysmal declivities, presented a magnificent appearance, white from crest to foot, resembling a huge solid mass of the finest marble, instead of the bluish-grey marble of which it is principally composed. As the slanting rays of the sun struck it, the mountain reflected the light in so dazzling a manner as to seriously affect the sight. Again, when the clouds collected around its summit, it was difficult to distinguish between the vapour and the topmost peaks of the snow-crowned mountain. All around the snow had fallen thickly upon the peaks and slopes of the Eubœa ranges, while even the fertile valley of Mesogia, which can be seen from the heights, lay under a heavy carpet of dazzling white.

Beautiful as the entire country in its virgin garb of spotless snow appeared to the eyes of the admiring Greeks, unaccustomed as they are to such wintry spectacles, which are common enough, however, in the more inhospitable northern climes, the picture had its tragic side. In the provinces a number of peasants died from exposure, and others were frozen to death in their poor homes, utterly defenceless against the great cold, since they possess ordinarily neither fireplaces nor stoves, the whole structure being of the flimsiest material.

Athens Climate

In sub-tropical Kalamata, the warmest corner of *Græcia Felix*, the snow was so heavy last winter that all transportation had to be suspended for several days; valley and plains alike were impassable. In Thessaly, the granary of Greece, mountain and valley presented the appearance of one great sheet of white; traffic of all kinds was completely stopped between Larissa and Carpenissi, as also between Volo and Zagoras. The excessive cold seriously damaged the olive-trees in the famous productive region of Mount Pelion, around which the "Twenty-four Villages," distinguished for their wealth and independence, shivered from the piercing winds, and the inhabitants watched their olive-trees, the source of their opulence, grow blacker and blacker in the terrible grip of winter. Sheep and lambs died by hundreds, a fact which was seriously reflected in the price of meat, which went up to an unheard-of price in Athens, lamb fetching 3.40 dr. per oke (=2·827 lbs.), instead of, as usual, about 2 dr.

In spite of the fact that the climatic conditions of Greece are said to remain the same from century to century, and to have shown little alteration from the earliest historical period, here, as in most if not all parts of Europe, the decidedly unpleasant change described was observed in the severity of last winter. The Athens Observatory, which is situated high up on the famous Hagia Marina, and has existed since 1842, contains many interesting meterological records, from which it would seem that, with a mean barometrical height of 29·5 inches at the capital, the annual humidity is 41 per cent. The rainfall amounts to 13·2, and this is distributed over 100 days, leaving the balance of 265 delightful days when it is either wholly or partially fine.

From January to February the weather is said by the Greeks to be "cold"; to us Northerners it appears little more than exhilarating and crisp. January usually

shows a mean temperature of 46·4° Fahr., while in July it amounts to 80·6°. Taken the whole year round, the temperature stands at 63·3° in Athens, while for the entire kingdom the figures are: January 46·4-52°, July 75-84°, and for the whole twelve months 62·6-66°. As against the proverbial "three fine days and a thunderstorm" which constitute the English summer, in Greece there are 200 fine days and 14 thunderstorms. The usual average durance of snowfall is put at 4-5 days, but, as mentioned above, last winter (1911-12) proved an exception, and will be long looked upon by the inhabitants as an *annus mirabilis* in climatic conditions.

One of the most impressive, and at the same time for the stranger one of the most painful, scenes to be witnessed in Athens is the funeral processions, which may be encountered almost every day, and sometimes more than once in the day, proceeding through the principal streets on the way to the cemetery. The route is long, for the burial-ground, used by Catholics and Protestants alike, is situated outside the city, on the banks of the rivulet Ilissus; a spring issuing from a rock was known to the ancients as Kallirrhœ—"the pleasantly flowing."

Beautifully laid out with trees, shrubs, and flowers, this large and verdant space is crowded with magnificent — some critics term them tawdry — monuments, mostly of marble, many of which are richly cut stones and bearing representations of the Homeric poems.

Here come the slowly moving mournful processions, the lead being taken by a near relative—or maybe only an acquaintance—of the deceased, carrying the coffin-lid. Behind him follow the cassocked priest, the relatives, the mourners, all walking, the coaches, like the hearse itself, following behind empty; and then comes the corpse in an entirely uncovered coffin, the head being usually raised some inches so that all who pass may see its features.

ATHENS: THE ACADEMY OF SCIENCES, BUILT BY THE LATE BARON SINA, OF VIENNA.
It is constructed entirely of Pentelic marble, in the classic Grecian style.
(See p. 315.)

Funerals

What possible satisfaction or consolation can be derived from this public exposure of the face of one's beloved dead, a subject for light and open comment, it is impossible to imagine. The mere idea of such a practice would horrify the ordinary bereaved relative, but apparently in the Near East—as in far-off India among the native population—the custom is carried out generally.

We who profess to decry it should remember that we ourselves upon occasions practise the exposure of our noble dead—kings, princes, and the great ones of the earth—for the gratification of the morbid and the curious. Thus we should be the last to denounce the Greek ceremonial of burial.

It must not be assumed, however, that the religious ceremonial is anything but impressive and decorous. The service is conducted partly in the home of the deceased and partly in the church, the corpse always being reverently laid with the face towards the east. Further ceremonies are conducted at the graveside, and beautiful floral offerings are brought there by friends and relations. Any member of a friendly or learned society is followed to the grave by the whole of his brethren, and as the body leaves the house where death occurred an earthenware vessel is broken outside the door.

Upon inquiring the reason of the bodies being carried in open coffins, I was informed that the custom has prevailed since the days of the Turkish occupation, an instruction having been issued by a former Ottoman governor, in order to prevent any concealed arms being smuggled through the streets. But the custom really goes back farther than that, for Solon, the wise Eupatrid and famous poet—among many decrees which he passed while the chief law-giver of Athens—ordered corpses to be exposed as far as the chest when being borne to the tomb as a precaution against foul play.

The ceremony of baptism is a very prolonged and

important one, and the customs connected with it very peculiar. There are thousands of Greeks among the peasant class who have never washed their bodies from the day of their anointment with the holy oils which form so prominent a part of the baptismal ceremonies; for they believe that if these oils are removed some dire misfortune is bound to attend them. And in this idea they are encouraged by a certain section of the priesthood.

The marriage ceremonies are not unlike our own, the principal difference being in the crowning of the bride and bridegroom with circlets, which look singularly out of place upon heads of twentieth-century individuals, although doubtless suitable enough when worn by the ancient Greeks, from whom the ceremonial has certainly descended.

In regard to the actual cost of living, the obtaining of accurate and representative figures is always a matter of some difficulty, not only because if half a dozen different individuals be consulted they will give half a dozen different accounts, but each district or department of the country has its own particular tariff, and very often an article which is excessively high-priced in one town may be obtained at a much more reasonable figure in another. As a guide, therefore, I cannot ask my readers to accept the subjoined table (see p. 333) as absolutely correct; it is merely as near the actual figures as could be obtained.

Such imported articles as biscuits, canned milk, preserved fruits, English ham, tinned fish (herrings, sardines, bloaters, &c.), chocolates, potted meats, ginger, soups, &c., are very expensive, and quite beyond the reach of the ordinary household. A can of Nestlé's preserved milk, for instance, which costs but 3d. or 4d. in England, fetches 1s., and even, at high-class stores, as much as 1s. 3d. On the whole, it may be said that the cost of living in Greece is 50 per cent.

dearer than in England, and about 25 to 30 per cent. dearer than in the United States.

In regard to ordinary retail groceries, the market quotations in Athens in English equivalents are :—

		s.	d.			s.	d.
Bread ...	... per pound	0	2	Poultry ...	each	1	4
Flour ...	... „ „	0	2	Fowls (hens) ...	„	1	8
Beef ...	... „ „	0	9½	Ducks ...	... „	2	0
Veal ...	... „ „	0	9½	Eggs ...	... per dozen	0	11
Lamb ...	... „ „	0	8½	Coffee ...	... „ pound	1	3
Ham ...	... „ „	4	6	Sugar ...	... „ „	0	6
Fish (fresh) ...	„ „	0	9½	Tea ...	... „ „	4	0
„ (salt) ...	„ „	0	4	Rice ...	... „ „	0	3½
Cheese (Greek)	„ „	0	7½	Potatoes	... „ „	0	1½
Butter „	„ „	1	7	Salt ...	... „ „	0	1
„ (imported)	„ „	2	6	Vegetables	... „ „	0	1
Milk ...	... „ litre	0	3	Fruits ...	... „ „	0	3

Although agreeable enough to the palate, the Greek coffee, as served in Athens and throughout the country, is hardly as well made nor yet as aromatic as the best Turkish coffee to be obtained in Egypt and Turkey, although it is ground from the same berry. In Athens the liquid is served in similarly small cups and usually already sweetened, although it can be had without sugar if preferred. In the first form it is called *café gliko*, and in the second *café métrio*. It costs from 10 to 20 lepta (1d. to 2d.) per cup, according to the locality in which it is purchased, and it is served with the whole of the grounds. The coffee, when thus served, should stand for a few minutes in order to allow the thick sediment to settle.

Hospitality demands that a small cup of coffee, and invariably a cigarette, should be offered to every visitor immediately he is seated, and no matter what be the hour of the day. The same pleasant custom prevails in Turkey and in Egypt, and reminds one of the attention paid to visitors in Japan, where a small cup of pale, yellow liquid, called "tea," is always offered, even the railway companies providing this kind of light

refreshment for first-class passengers, and free of charge.

The Greeks are extremely fond of sweetmeats and sweetened drinks of all kinds. A favourite refreshment is a new and less-sickly form of Turkish delight known as "loukoumi." It is merely pure rice flour sweetened, mixed with pistachio nuts and almonds. The natives also consume large quantities of marmalade, which I have seen brought to bank managers at their desks and eaten in spoonfuls, the sticky stuff then being washed down by a draught of pure water taken from a tumbler. Yet another refreshment taken at all hours of the day is a liquor distilled from mastic gum, and which forms a creamy-looking fluid when mixed with water, not at all unlike in appearance, but infinitely more agreeable in taste, to the *pulque* which is found and consumed in immense quantities in Mexico. A *loukoumi* or a *masticha* costs but 5 or 10 lepta (say ½d. or 1d.).

English teas, such as the French call "le fiv-o'clock," have, as stated, become fashionable of late years, and in Athens two or three recently established "rooms" would appear to carry on a profitable business. The neatly attired waitresses are quite as attractive as, and a great deal more polite than, some of the haughty young women who condescend to attend upon the customers of the British catering establishments. There are likewise a number of well-appointed pastry-cook establishments, which now make a feature of serving afternoon teas, their catering including an endless variety of very rich and tasty cakes, and, for those who prefer them, just as delicious ice-creams. The prices are in all cases moderate, and one may become extremely bilious upon quite a small outlay.

CHAPTER XXVIII

Courts of Justice — Judges — Salaries — Procedure — Juries — Criminal courts — Prisons — Death penalty — Executioners — Remarkable history—Executions wholesale.

British political relations—Canning—Palmerston—Castlereagh—Lord Guilford—Blockading of the Piræus—Gladstone—Byron monuments—Lady Egerton—Lord Elgin—Robbery of Grecian marbles.

THE Greeks have put themselves to much trouble to arrange a Civil and Criminal Code which shall represent the best features and avoid the errors which occur in the codes adopted by other countries. Thus they possess a Civil Code based largely upon the Roman law, the Code Napoléon, and German law; a Commercial Code modelled upon that of France; and a Penal Code which is remarkably complete, very methodical in arrangement, in its provisions, likewise very humane in its penalties. The Civil Code contains eleven hundred different articles, while the Criminal Code contains ample provision for the protection of the accused persons who are to be tried under its regulations.

In spite of these many admirable laws in existence, it is only within recent times that justice has been administered in the country without reproach. For many reasons the system in vogue of removing judges at the will of the Minister, and their transfer from place to place for political reasons, was to be deprecated. To-day, thanks to the new regulations which have been introduced by M. Vénizélos, most of the old abuses in

the administration of justice have been removed, or, at least, considerably modified; and there is every reason to believe that the further reforms which the Government have under contemplation will tend to eventually bestow upon Greece the inestimable blessing of a pure and dependable justiciary, for in the memorable words of Cicero, "*Fundamenta justitiæ sunt, ut ne cui noceatur.*" Hitherto the poor man has been the victim of much violation of right, and the rich one unduly favoured. Henceforth there will be no occasion for reproach, it is to be hoped and believed, and for this reformation, if for no other, the present régime in Greece will be remembered with gratitude and appreciation.

The Courts of Law, all of which are under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Justice, consist of :—

The Supreme Appeal (or Areopagos) Court, with a President and Vice-President and five other judges, the King's Proctor, the Deputy King's Proctor, the Registrar and 15 Counsellors or Counsel.

Athens Appeal Court, the Corfu Appeal Court, the Larissa Appeal Court, the Nauplia Appeal Court, and the Patras Appeal Court; Courts of First Instance at Arta, Athens, Chalcis, Kalamata, Lamia, Kyparissia, Gythion, Evrytania, Elis, Corinth, Corfu, Cephalonia, and Karditza.

There are numerous justices of the peace, the holders of the appointments being under the jurisdiction of the particular Appeal Courts which are held in the district. These range from 40 in the Nauplia radius to but two in the Cephalonia district, and which is affiliated with that of Corfu.

In some districts the Courts sit only every three months; in others for almost every month throughout the year. The proceedings are most orderly, and some very powerful orators are to be found among the counsel engaged.

The judges' salaries, like those of the Ministers of

the Crown, are exceedingly low. Thus the President receives but 7,500 dr. (say £300) per annum; the Vice-President 6,000 dr. (£240); the other judges forming the Court of Appeal (Areopagos) 5,400 dr. (£216), while the Registrar receives 2,300 dr. (£92). The judges of the lower Appeal Courts receive 4,800 dr. (£192), the President of each Court drawing 6,000 dr. (£240). In the Court of First Instance the members receive 3,600 dr. (£144) and the President 4,850 dr. (£194) per annum. In the County Courts, of which there are 350 in the kingdom, the salaries are about 3,000 dr. (£120).

Juries are only empanelled in criminal cases, and it is an excellent rule that no criminal can be tried in the district where he lives, or where he committed his offence, thus removing any possibility of a prejudiced tribunal.

The State prisons are divided into Houses of Correction and Criminal Prisons. Of the former there are two in Athens, namely, the Ephivion, for males only, and of whom there are usually between 170 and 200 interned, and the Syngros, named after the philanthropist millionaire who left the money for its construction. This is for female prisoners, and contains upon an average 250 inmates. The principal provincial Houses of Correction are at Egine, where there is accommodation for 500; Zante, which contains 280; Corfu, which can accommodate 200, and Cephalonia, where there were at the time of my visit 185 prisoners.

The criminal prisons are seven in number, and consist of the following: Amphissa, with 184 prisoners; Ithaca, with 158; Pylos, with 262; Palamidi (Nauplia), with some 380; Rhion, with 219; Trikkala, with 280, and Zante, with 40.

There are thus two prisons in Zante, one of which is situated in the town, constructed at the time of the British occupation, while the other is the old Venetian Castle on the hill behind the town. Previous to the

earthquake there were 312 prisoners confined in the Town Prison, while the Castle had 65 inmates, but in order to prevent the convicts from escaping the authorities reduced these numbers to 107 and 42 respectively, distributing the remainder among the prisons of Corfu, Ithaca, and Cephalonia.

There are several other penal establishments where criminals convicted of less serious offences are confined, such as at Athens, the old *caserne* being adapted for the purpose, and which contains between 340 and 350 men; Arta, with 50; Volo, with 100; Gythion, 50-60; Kalamata, 250; Karditza, 120; Carpenissi, 50; Corfu, 70; Corinth, 50; Kyparissia, 160; Lamia, 158; Larissa, 80; Livadia, 60-70; Leucade, 90-100; Missolonghi, 150; Patras, 320; Pyrgos, 280; Sparta, 60; Tripolis, 90; Chalcis, 105; Syra, 40; and Palamidi (Nauplia), 120.

As mentioned, the principal female prison is at Athens; there are, in addition, central women's penitentiaries established in all of the towns where the Assizes (Courts of First Instance) sit; but there are so few females imprisoned that the majority of these establishments are untenanted except for the small staff of caretakers and officials who are maintained there.

Prisoners condemned to death—and it may be here mentioned that only the most serious cases of murder, brigandage, or similar crimes are punished by death—formerly were confined in underground cells, which must have been somewhat unpleasantly reminiscent of the ancient dungeons at Venice and at Nuremburg. The number of prisoners in each cell sometimes amounted to as many as twenty; but this only arises to-day when the accommodation in the prison is severely strained. And several new prisons are now being built.

The most cruel part of the condemned men's treatment consists in the uncertainty attending the day appointed for their execution. Frequently the sentence hangs over them for many months before it is finally

IONIAN ISLANDS : PRISON AT ZANTE.

Among the captives are some who have been sentenced for murder, but who have escaped the extreme penalty.

(See p. 337.)

[To face p. 339.

carried out, and it is also to be feared that in times past, although I am assured the practice no longer prevails, official favouritism and political or personal influence have played no unimportant part in reprieves and pardons being granted.

Upon the morning of execution—always carried out at daybreak—the unhappy culprit is awakened, and then, as upon the day before, he is supplied with a full oke of wine—about 2½ pints. This is provided to induce stupor, or, at least, partial drowsiness, and frequently it has that merciful effect.

The procession then forms, consisting of a picket of soldiers, forty in number, the chaplain in full canonicals, and who reads aloud the burial service as the procession moves along, the King's Proctor and the Public Prosecutor or his representative, and the commandant of the garrison. Before arrival at the guillotine, which is erected upon a spot situated at about a quarter of an hour's walk from the condemned cell, the prisoner is strapped to a movable platform and his hands tied behind his back. Before the knife is put into operation, the doomed wretch is granted five minutes in which to make any public statement or declaration which he may care to address to the assembled company. The assembly of spectators usually includes a good many morbid-minded and curious visitors recruited from the villages and towns around. As all Greeks are orators, and can seldom forego the privilege of delivering a homily, this advantage is freely made use of. Sometimes the period granted expires before the speech is concluded, a fact which does not prevent the wholly unmoved executioner from putting his terrible machine into operation. With, maybe, some forcible and eloquent expression still upon his lips, the unfortunate orator is suddenly tilted upwards and backwards bodily upon the platform upon which he stands, his neck being thus brought into a stiff collar immediately beneath the gleaming knife ; in a brief moment more his head

rolls from the body, and the dread sentence of the law has been completed.

I learned from a prison official who had been present at the execution of seventeen prisoners upon one day, that the knife of the guillotine became so blunted that in the case of the last of the condemned the blade had to be raised and let fall no fewer than three times before the man's head was finally severed.

Considering the manner in which Great Britain has persistently and sometimes unwarrantably interfered in the domestic affairs of Greece, it is somewhat surprising to find that nation as popular and as respected as it is. Maybe the Hellenes deem the good effects have outweighed the bad, and perhaps they would be justified in arriving at such a conclusion. The name of George Canning will certainly not be speedily forgotten, even though that of Castlereagh be remembered with regret. Greece was always a land easily visited by travelling Englishmen, and those returning home in the early days of the country's struggles for freedom usually acted as special pleaders for its emancipation. Lord Guilford, also, who presented, in 1823, a University to the Ionian Islands, has been described by the Greeks themselves as "the greatest and thrice greatest of Philhellenes."

On the other hand, there were the weak government of Lord Liverpool, under which the Greek affairs were at the mercy of his colleague, Castlereagh; the base betrayal of Greek claims by Admiral Lyons; Lord Palmerston's unreasonable and untimely demands for the repayment of certain loans and arrears of interest upon moneys lent; the blockading of the Piræus and the seizure of Greek vessels, events which even by the ceding of the Ionian Islands after several years' occupation, the splendid services rendered a long time previously by Lord Byron and, later on, the emancipation of Greece for ever from Turkish control and Turkish invasion, are but partially atoned for. All

these grievances were inflicted by a Power in whose hands the Greek nation had trustingly placed "the sacred deposit of its liberty, independence, and political existence, under its absolute protection." Thus read words of the petition which was signed by over two thousand Greeks, representing the flower of the country, in the year 1825, when it was in the throes of its greatest agony.

The Greeks are on the whole an appreciative people, and they have not forgotten, neither will they forget, the services, inadequate and incomplete as they were, which England and France rendered to their country at the time of its great trouble and when complete ruin at the hands of the Turks seemed inevitable. This sentiment is not confined to the Greeks in Greece, but is entertained and fully expressed by subjects of the Hellenic Kingdom wherever they are to be found—that is to say, all over the world. The Greek Committees of London and Paris succeeded in saving this small but vigorous nation from decimation; and the name of William Ewart Gladstone, who, with his second administration, which commenced in the spring of 1880 and ended in 1885, endorsed the action of the French Government under Gambetta, is revered throughout the Hellenic Kingdom. As a mark of gratitude, a fine statue has been erected to the memory of the great Liberal statesman fronting the University.

But the name and fame of the Englishman in Greece dates back very much farther than Gladstone's time. Records show that in the days of King Henry III., one John of Basingstoke, Archbishop of Leicester, went to Athens, then still a seat of learning, in order to study, and with such good effect that he became recognised throughout Europe as one of the greatest scholars of his age. He likewise brought with him upon his return to England a certain Greek grammar, which he called his "Donatus," received from the Greeks, as well as a Testament of the Patriarchs, and which his

friend and benefactor, Robert Grosseteste, Bishop of Lincoln, had translated into Latin.

Later on, in the seventeenth century, came Wheler and Francis Vernon, who were succeeded in 1810 by Graham, Haygarth, and the neurotic poet Byron, to whose memory a handsome monument has been erected in the Zappeion grounds of Athens, and also two others, one at Corfu and the third at Missolonghi. In his honour, additionally, an Athens street—La Rue de Byron—has been named. Leake, Chandler, and Tweddell; Sibthorpe, Hawkins, and Revett, are all names of Englishmen remembered in Greece to-day, while the services rendered to the struggling nation by Hastings, Cochrane, and Church, from 1825 to 1827, before the brutal if brave Turk Kioutaji became complete master of the country, will never be forgotten.

In further commemoration of the poet Byron, the Greek Government last year (1911) passed plans for the erection at Missolonghi of a suitable monument to be surrounded by a small ornamental garden, upon the spot where Byron died in April of 1824. Already a monument exists, as mentioned elsewhere, in the Heroon, or burial-place of the Grecian champions of freedom, many of whose mortal remains repose beneath a large mound. Besides this stands the Byron monument, which was erected in 1881. The poet's heart is said to have been finally interred here; but there is some doubt about this, since, during the siege of Missolonghi in 1826, when the Turkish leader, Ibrahim Pasha, almost completely destroyed the town, the wooden box which unquestionably contained Byron's heart and entrails disappeared, and its destination has never been definitely traced. It was in the last days of the siege, when the Greeks set fire to many of their own powder magazines, thus involving their enemies and their friends alike in one common destruction, that the house where Byron died of a fever was blown up, and completely disappeared.

The initiative in connection with the idea of erecting this further memorial is due to the Prime Minister, M. E. Vénizélos, whose admiration for the English poet, and friendliness for Englishmen generally, has been demonstrated upon more than one occasion.

Then there is Lady Egerton, the wife of the British Minister, who was much beloved, and who fully sustained the dignity of the country which he represented. Lady Egerton was an ideal hostess, and her generosity is still talked of by those among her own countrymen and countrywomen who knew her and her capable husband. In those days the British Legation was the scene of much hospitality, and a Britisher arriving in Athens might depend upon a courteous and probably a friendly reception at the hands of his country's representative.

The popularity of the English is also exemplified in such little incidents as the adoption of British arms upon most of the doors of the carriages plying for hire, and the naming of the two principal hotels in the capital—La Grande Bretagne and L'Angleterre. In the islands of Cephalonia and Ithaca, English is spoken with great freedom, for there Sir Charles Napier once held office. Of these islanders the great Indian soldier and statesman once declared, "They were the most delightful people among whom he had ever passed his time."

Undoubtedly one of the most regrettable losses to both Greece and Great Britain was occasioned by the death, in the month of November, 1908, of Sir Edward Fitzgerald Law, a former member of the International Financial Commission, and the author of one of the most complete and masterly reports upon the kingdom of Greece which has ever been written. Sir Edward was greatly beloved by every one with whom he came into contact, while his wife, who survives him, and who is a Greek (*née* Mademoiselle Hatzopoulo), is no less esteemed and popular in Athens. How deeply Sir Edward Law was attached to Greece and to the

Greeks was proved by a provision in his will that his remains should be interred at Athens. Not only were the Crown Prince, the other princes, and the whole of the Cabinet present at his obsequies, but several thousands of Athenians testified to their love for this great Englishman by attending the last sad rites at his graveside.

Although Lord Elgin, who was our Ambassador at Constantinople in the early days of the last century (to be accurate from 1799 until 1802), undoubtedly received permission from the Ottomans then in possession of Athens to remove the precious marbles which were taken from the Acropolis, he had no moral right to displace them from their almost sacred ground. The fact that he sold them to the British Government afterwards for the sum of £35,000 renders the transaction all the more discreditable. Even the depositing in the British Museum of these marbles, which were taken from the pediments, metopes, and frieze of the incomparable Parthenon, or Temple of Minerva, should not reconcile us as a nation to retaining what, by every moral right, really belongs to the Greeks.

We certainly ought not to be in any way indebted to Lord Elgin for benefits arising from so shady an act; and that he was occupying the lofty position of British Ambassador when he perpetrated the sacrilege seems to me, at least, to be an aggravation of the original offence.

The Greeks feel, and will, I am certain, continue to feel, extremely indignant at the removal and retention of these precious marbles from their native territory. It is anathema to them to think of their treasured relics reposing beneath the gloom of London skies, in a building as forbidding as the district in which it stands, instead of flashing, as they had proudly done for so many centuries, from their polished and inscribed faces the brilliant, scintillating sunshine of ever beautiful Greece! One can, indeed, heartily sympathise with

such feeling, sentimental though it may be. The only thing that we can and should do is to restore them without delay, and without asking for any compensation. They are really loot, taken from a young and defenceless nation with whom we were not at issue, and at a time when they were distracted by wars and oppression at the hands of their savage and merciless enemies the Turks.

CHAPTER XXIX

Patras—Features of town—Cathedral—Turkish castle—Shipping—British interests—Population—Public works—Foreign co-operation—British opportunity—French contractors—Port works scheme—Burlumi dry-currant factory.

Trikkala—Population—Manufacturing establishments—Cotton-weaving—Labour—Wages—Hours of labour—Average productions—The Prefect.

THE modern history of Patras synchronises almost exactly with the breaking away of Greece from Turkey. Alexander Ypsilantis summoned the Hellenes to the War of Independence, and in 1821 Patras was almost entirely destroyed by Yussuf Pasha. Perhaps this was really a blessing in disguise, for old Patras, or "Patrasso," as the Italians call it, must have been an exceedingly unattractive town even if it bears a picturesque appearance from the sea. The modern city is still far from beautiful—architecturally speaking—but at least its streets are straight and wide, its roads are for the most part extremely well paved, and its many arcades afford a pleasant refuge from the glaring sun, and from the heavy rains which sometimes visit it. Moreover, it possesses a number of fine open spaces as well as many tree-flanked avenues with handsome fountains. The greatest attraction which Patras has to offer, however, consists in its pleasant sea-walk and broad pier, the latter running out some distance into the sea, and being terminated by a round stone-built structure and a lighthouse, also of handsome stone.

The main street of Patras, somewhat hard at first to

distinguish from among the other thoroughfares, is known as St. Nicholas, and leads from the town to the harbour by way of a very long and a very straight road. The most modern buildings of any note in the town are the post and telegraph office, the theatre, the Mairie, the law-courts, and one or two private residences built by wealthy Greeks during the days when fortunes were made out of currants, but which have since come upon the market in consequence of the erstwhile owners having lost their fortunes in the bad times. One of these handsome edifices, almost entirely constructed of Pantelican marble, now forms the Mairie, having been purchased by the municipality at a very low figure and transformed as found necessary.

In a few years' time a magnificent new cathedral—dedicated to St. Andrew, the patron saint of Patras—will add to the town's notable structures, and will replace the present unpretentious whitewashed edifice which stands upon the spot selected, and which is to be demolished to make room for the new church. Patras is the seat of an archbishopric, and contains already some twelve or thirteen older churches, most of which have very elaborate interiors. There is also an English church, likewise dedicated to St. Andrew, of which the Rev. Mr. Burroughs is the incumbent, and Mr. Wood, H.B.M. Consul, is the lay-reader. At this modest temple the small British colony in Patras, consisting of some seven or eight families, congregate every Sunday and holy-day.

The most interesting building which Patras can show is undoubtedly the Venetian-Turkish castle, which is now used as a combined prison and barracks. Here one may see an almost perfect specimen of a large mediæval fortress, with its massive hewn and sculptured stones, and its square, thick walls, which are superimposed partly upon an ancient Roman *odeion* with its twenty-five tiers of seats in brickwork, which were originally covered with white marble. The fortress

is extremely picturesque, especially when first seen from the sea, reminding one of the building, constructed at about the same period, at Nauplia, and of which a description has been given elsewhere in this volume.

Most of the British residents are engaged in shipping, this being, next to the Firæus, the most important port in Greece. The natives for the most part are concerned, either directly or indirectly, in the currant, raisin, and wine trades, while the neighbourhood offers many attractions to those who are interested in the manufacture of wine after the German method. The yearly export of this article exceeds 88,000 gallons, most of this being over five years of age, the exception being a few of the lighter wines, which can be purchased locally very cheaply.

The largest of the vineyards, the Gutland, is situated some four miles out of the town and is owned by a German, who employs almost exclusively his own countrymen. As elsewhere in the world, these Teutons are by no means popular among the natives, being found as a rule narrow-and petty-minded in their dealings, ungenerous in their benefactions, far from honourable in their business methods, and always unsociable. I have observed the same traits upon the part of Germans in other parts of the world, and, even in countries like Chile, Brazil, and Central America, where their industry and enterprise are most cordially acknowledged and their administrative qualities bear the greatest amount of fruit, from a social point of view they are usually detested, and as business associates as deeply distrusted.

The population of Patras, the second largest seaport of Greece, consists of 20,176 males and 17,225 females, or a total of 37,401 of both sexes. The town is garrisoned by the 12th Infantry Regiment, which is nearly 1,500 strong, consisting of 56 officers and 1,400 men.

In the prisons, of which there are three, there are

THE PORT OF PATRAS: THE CENTRE OF THE CURRANT TRADE AND SEAT OF AN ARCHBISHOP.
Next to the Piræus, it is the most important port in the Kingdom.
(See p. 346.)

confined at present 452 prisoners, distributed as follows: 69 at the Acropolis, 145 at the Marguerita (of whom 23 are detained for debt and 122 for committing various offences), and 238 at the Rhion. The Province, of which Patras is to-day the principal town, is now composed of the two former Nomoi of Achaii and Elis, which are grouped together as one Department, and the respective population of which amounts to 158,918 inhabitants for the former and to 102,810 for the latter.

There are two important public enterprises which are about to be undertaken in Patras, one being in connection with the much-needed improvement of the port, and which will call for the expenditure of 1,800,000 dr., while the other is the construction of the new cathedral, which is to be of great magnificence and to cost 20,000,000 dr. (£800,000). In reference to the latter plans were called for from architects in all countries of the world, the competition being an international one. The judging committee sat in Berlin, and was formed to decide upon the selection of the plans and the award of the prize offered. Those submitted by a French architect were selected finally, and the prize of 10,000 dr. (£400) was awarded to the victor. Tenders will now be called for from all the countries of Europe for the construction of the building.

It is not surmised that in this connection, however, French builders will be selected, since it seems that whenever French contractors have been employed they have given a great deal of trouble to the authorities on account of the purposeless interference of the French Legation at Athens, with the consequence that the responsible officials in Patras are not at all anxious to court fresh trouble and acrimonious correspondence upon this occasion. Hitherto English contractors have not been dealt with, but the authorities at Patras expressed to me their ardent desire to enter into negotia-

tions with some reputable British firm, either for one or for both of the new undertakings above mentioned.

The new works in connection with the port of Patras would necessarily include a reconstruction of the present long sea-wall and breakwater, which have been built in order to afford protection to the ships lying at anchor in the harbour, and which cost 2,000,000 dr. (£80,000) to erect. The work, however, has not been found satisfactory owing principally to the character of the foundations, which have been laid upon an unsound and shifting bottom, composed of mud and sand, and there being an entire absence of rock or other firm substance to form a base.

Of the most prosperous of the industries which are carried on in Patras—the packing and exportation of currants—I speak fully in the chapters devoted to the consideration of that enterprise, and under the same heading will be found a description of the important factory, with its recent extensions, owned by Messrs. P. A. Burlumi & Co.

It is a little difficult to recognise in the modern town of Trikkala, the capital of the Nomos of the same name, with its well-paved streets, its handsome residences, its attractive squares, and, above all, its fine stone bridges, of which there are no fewer than three, the ancient Trika, once the famous seat of worship of Æsculapius. Nevertheless, this is the self-same spot on the slope of the hill, and crowned now with a commanding citadel, where thousands of the pious followers of the god of medicine were wont to come with their votive offerings.

In place of the temples which then existed, we have now as many as ten Christian churches, almost the same number of mosques, and a fair assortment of synagogues, for all sorts and conditions of religions flourish in Trikkala, the different sects living in amity with one another in a manner which would afford an excellent object-lesson to certain cathedral towns in England.

According to the most recent census returns, made in 1907, the population of the Department of Trikkala is 183,489; of the town of the same name, 17,809; of Karditza, the second town, 9,664; and of Kalambaka, the port, 2,305. The people are considered to rank among the most enterprising and industrious in the whole of the kingdom, but at the same time they bear the reputation of being somewhat difficult to handle, since they have been to some extent spoiled by their very success, and as a consequence they are occasionally troubled with the complaint known as "swelled head."

There are forty-seven different manufacturing establishments in the Department, most of these being found in or around the capital. They comprise two electric-light works, one being at Trikkala and the other at Karditza. The proprietor of both establishments is M. Stamatopoulos. There are likewise two cotton-gins, one being at the model farm belonging to M. G. Christaki-Zographos, at Lazarina, and of whose estate I give a fuller description under the chapter devoted to agriculture, while the other is established at Kortiki. Of cotton-weaving factories there are 42, and it is in these mills only that female labour is employed. The women are paid at the rate of from 60 lepta to 1½ dr. *per diem* (say from 6d. to 1s. 3d.), and they work for the full 10 hours on the average.

Other important industrial undertakings comprise a number of small factories of the usual commodities, such as boots, gloves, hats, and articles of silk.

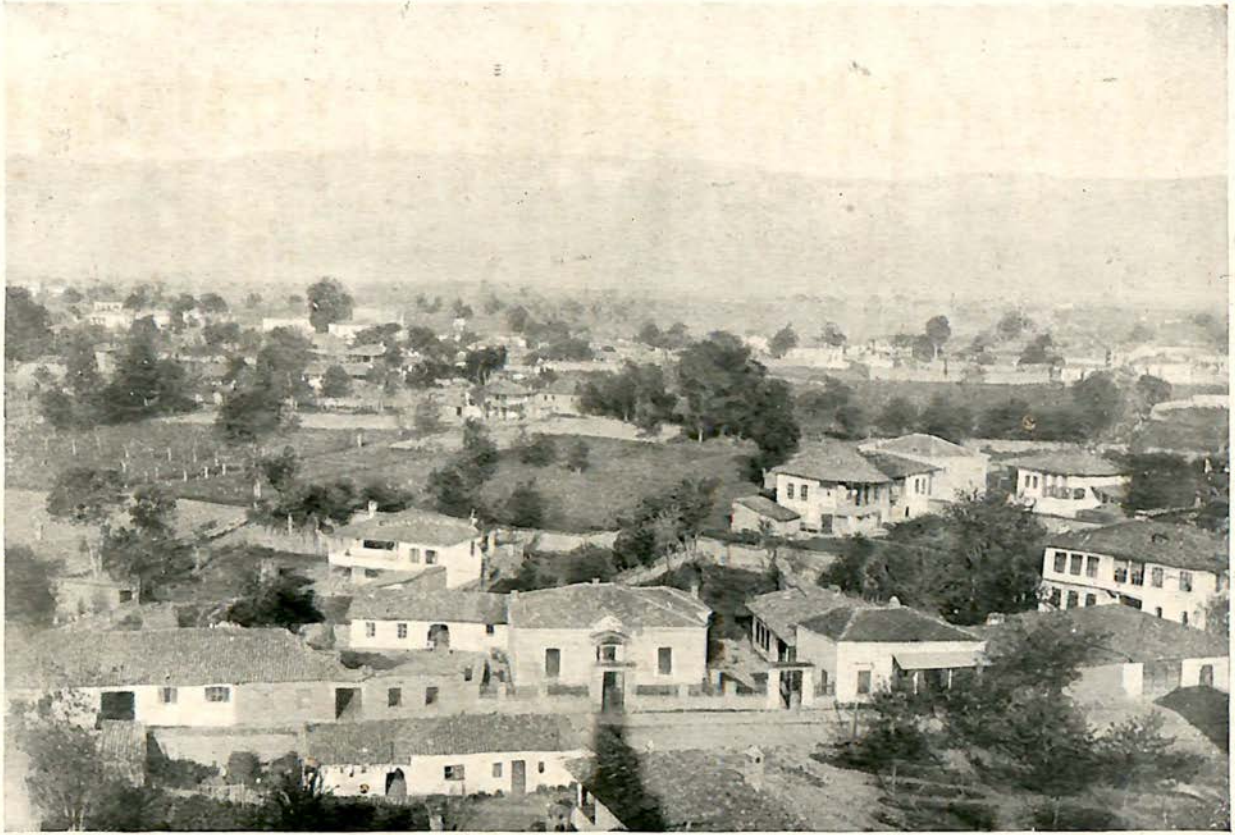
There are altogether 278 establishments in the Department using water-power (132 being in the capital and 146 in the provinces), and 9 which use steam-power, namely, 2 in the capital and 7 in the provinces. At all of these mills the hours of work are much about the same, that is, from 10 to 12 daily. The payment earned ranges between 3 and 5 dr. (say 2s. 6d. to 4s. 2d.) *per diem*, while some expert

employees may possibly add to this last-mentioned sum, but the amount would not be very much. As many as 75 workpeople find employment in the larger mills, and the average production amounts to 8,000 okes for the smaller and to 20,000 okes for the larger establishments. (An oke, as already mentioned, is equivalent to 2·827 lbs.)

Trikkala, it will be remembered, is one of the two departments of the province of Thessaly, Larissa being the other, and in the following table of the agricultural production, for which I am indebted to the courtesy of the young but extremely competent prefect, M. Pierre Macas, it has been deemed better to present the figures of the whole Province collectively :—

PRODUCTION OF THESSALY (TRIKKALA AND LARISSA) FOR 1909–10.

Nature of Produce.	Weight in Greek okes. (1 oke = 2·827 lbs.)	Average Price upon the Volo Market.	Value in Drachmæ. (1 dr. = 10d.)
		Dr.	Dr.
Wheat	45,792,480	0.33	15,111,519
Barley	13,040,532	0.20	2,608,106
Oats	3,776,164	0.20	755,232
Rye	746,739	0.22	164,282
Beans	315,354	0.40	126,141
Vetch	3,763,780	0.22	828,027
Maize	9,147,300	0.22	2,012,406
Chick-peas ...	465,740	0.30	139,722
Lentils	206,226	0.50	103,113
Sesamum ...	854,828	0.70	598,379
Haricot beans...	2,431,002	0.40	972,400
Aniseed ...	30,080	0.80	24,064
Tobacco ...	3,415,600	3.00	10,246,800
Potatoes ...	1,949,650	0.15	292,447
Cotton	135,260	1.50	202,890
Rice	128,000	0.50	64,000
Olives	2,051,500	0.50	1,025,750
Olive-oil ...	1,481,800	1.50	1,717,700
		Total value ...	36,992,978



TRIKKALA: CAPITAL OF THE NOMOS AND THE ANCIENT TRIKA, THE FAMOUS SEAT OF ÆSCULAPIUS. (See p. 350.)

CHAPTER XXX

Ionian Islands—Physical characteristics—Zante—British associations—Trade with Great Britain—Native manufactures—Currant cultivation—Vine diseases—Cephalonia—Geographical features—Beauty of districts—History—Town of Argostoli—Hospitality of inhabitants—Mr. and Mrs. John Toole—The British Vice-Consul—Under British rule—Remarkable roads—British trade with the island—Wine products—Textiles.

THE stranger who is destined to visit the Ionian Islands for the first time, and who is dependent upon advice and information in respect to his prospective movements, is usually counselled to see Ithaca first, Zante and Cephalonia next, and leave Corfu—the *bonne bouche*—to the last, the idea being that the scenic attractions of each of these islands should be revealed as a succession of surprises—the least leading up to the most beautiful. And I think the advice offered is sound?

The various aspects of the magnificent scenery met with—from the severe and almost chilly beauty of Ithaca to the luxuriant growths and wealth of agricultural surroundings, almost riotous in their colourings and richness, of Corfu—bring to mind the words of the poet Cowper: "The earth was made so various that the mind of desultory men, studious of change and pleased with novelty, might be indulged." Nowhere is this more amply proved than in the Ionian Islands.

If Zante is not the most richly endowed by Nature, it is at least bountifully provided with almost unique charms of its own, charms which grow and become

accentuated as one's stay is prolonged and the many physical beauties of the island become gradually revealed.

The whole island is but 152 miles square, and the smaller portion only is green and cultivated, fully two-thirds being barren—and yet by no means unlovely—mountain. In times past the island has been owned and governed—and as often misgoverned—by the Venetians and the Turks, now by the English, now by the French. It was only in 1864 that, in common with the other islands forming this group, Zante was incorporated into the Greek kingdom, and comparative peace—if not enduring prosperity—has been their common portion since. Zante suffered the most from the ravaging Turks, and remains of their senseless destruction still exist as evidences in the numerous ruined churches and other edifices.

And what had been spared by the Turks or repaired after their departure sustained serious damage in the earthquakes of last January and February.

Currant-growing is the most profitable industry carried on in Zante, and it is upon this that the whole prosperity of the island really depends. The methods employed are of a somewhat primitive nature, the implements in use being, as a matter of fact, restricted to the old-fashioned native hoe, while very few growers use artificial manure, partly on account of the additional heavy cost in production that this would entail and partly from sheer ignorance as to the amount of benefit which can be derived from its employment.

In Zante, as in most of the currant districts in Greece, the operation which is known as "ringing" is practised, by which the descent of the sap is obstructed, causing the berries to become larger than is the case with plants which are not so treated. There are some portions of the island where "ringing" is not practised, and here the berries, although small, are sweeter. It is this kind of fruit which in the trade is called the

"unring-cut," and it is very much in demand in Great Britain and the Channel Islands.

The currant crop is dried by the primitive method of exposing the bunches of fruit to the fierce rays of the sun, and although by so doing the growers run great risks of losing the results of a whole year's labour and its attendant outlay, should heavy rains happen to fall during this period, the expenses in connection with the industry are already found so high, while keen competition renders the profits proportionately so small, that the growers will not follow the safer, slower, but more expensive method of drying by the action of the air.

Of late years the appearance of vine diseases upon the island, combined with the generally altered conditions in regard to currant culture, has so much increased the cost of production that the profits have become in some cases practically nil. One of the principal causes of the heavy expenditure which currant-growing now entails is the immense rise in the wages paid to agricultural labourers, owing to the scarcity of labour due to emigration. Whereas at one time the wages paid to labourers upon the island's currant estates amounted to 1.20 dr. per day, the payments range to-day between 3 dr. and 4 dr., sometimes rising as high as 4.50 dr. per day, a full day's work being from ten to twelve hours in the springtime. In the summer the wages paid are from 3.30 dr. to 4 dr. During the winter months, when the sap ceases to flow and the vines lie dormant (that is to say, between the end of September and the end of December), there is little or no work found for labourers; but owing to the difficulties which exist in regard to the labour question, employers in the island who do not wish to lose good workmen arrange with them to stay on during the slack season at a daily wage of from 2 dr. to 3 dr. The hours of labour are then usually from about 7.30 a.m. to sunset, with half an hour free between 9.30 a.m.

and 10 a.m., and from one-half to three-quarters of an hour at midday for meals.

The wages paid to women workers are usually from 50 to 80 lepta less per day than those paid to men, while children are employed only during harvesting, when they receive wages in proportion to their individual capacity for work.

According to the last census figures (1907) the population of the Island of Zante numbered 42,000, of which total 15,780 represented the inhabitants of the port and town, and 26,220 the total population of the outlying districts. The above-mentioned figures, however, can only be taken as approximate, since emigration to the United States of America has considerably decreased the population; and, indeed, it is thought that the number of inhabitants at present does not reach 40,000. The language of the island, as one would naturally suppose, is modern Greek, the Zantiot *patois*, which at one time was spoken fairly generally by the peasant-class and in which was reflected the long Venetian domination, now dying out. Italian, French, and, in a less degree, English are also spoken by many of the better classes.

British trade in Zante still holds its own, in spite of the earnest efforts of both the Germans and the Americans to supplant our manufactures. The Greeks themselves, however, are gradually replacing Manchester goods by textile fabrics of their own, especially in yarns; but it must be many years before they can dispense with our productions, notwithstanding the heavy import duties which have been placed upon all foreign goods of this description. We send the islanders shirtings, prints, flannelettes, dyed Silesians, cotton Italians, Victoria lawn, yarns—such as water-twist, dyed and undyed—T-cloths, longcloths, domestics, cotton handkerchiefs, Bradford dress-goods, Meltons, serges, coatings, suitings, and woollens.

The Greeks are also now manufacturing in appre-

ciable quantities such articles as hats, costumes of cloth (ready-made goods) for native workmen and workwomen, beer, &c.; but in all cases the quality is very inferior (while the retail prices are but very little lower) than the imported articles.

The proportion of British trade in the above-named products for 1910 was £13,058 out of a total of £48,350, the only country which topped our figures being Austria-Hungary, with a return of £14,433. The German trade done with the islanders fell off immensely, both in quantity and value, dwindling from 31 tons, of a value of £1,550, in 1909, to 7 tons, of a value of £226, in 1910. The United States of America do not figure at all in this island's foreign trade relations. For 1911 the total trade of Zante dwindled to £44,086.

The return of British shipping at Zante for the past few years will be found set forth under the heading of "Ports and Harbours," Chapter XIX.

The largest of the Ionian Islands, which were under British rule between 1809 and 1863, Cephalonia is also one of the most beautiful from a scenic point of view. There are many individuals who consider Zante, the neighbouring island, to be the most richly endowed in this respect. This opinion is to be respected, but for my part I give the preference to Cephalonia—or Kephallenia, as it is variously called. Whether this island is the veritable Samē mentioned by Homer in the Odyssey, and formerly belonging to Ithaca, the home of Ulysses, it is difficult to say; there are many savants who declare that it was here and not in Ithaca that the hero of Troy was born, and quite recently certain excavations and discoveries made would appear to lend colour to this contention.

Of curiously irregular shape, Cephalonia has some 266 square miles of territory and a little over 70,000 inhabitants. Formerly it had many more, but here, as elsewhere throughout Greece, constant emigration has thinned the ranks of the younger men woefully,

and the draining of the best blood in the country still continues. The people are very industrious, and in the pursuit of their agricultural employment climb the loftiest mountains and daily tramp immense distances to carry on their cultivation. Patches of wheat, groves of olive-trees, and vineyards and fruit orchards may be seen clinging to the sides of the steepest of the Ænos and the Kranioi Mountains. It is astonishing to observe cultivation at such stupendous heights, and one can but admire the vigour and the enterprise of the people who select such spots for their activity.

Were this a guide-book one might dilate pleasantly upon the many attractive excursions which can be made in Cephalonia, mainly over roads which are not only the best in the whole of the kingdom, but which, for smoothness and easy gradient, may be compared to the most celebrated in Europe. The carriage drives to Fort St. George across the fertile plains of Kranioi, to Livatho through luxuriant vineyards and olive-trees and the village of Metaxata, where, in a house which still stands in perfect preservation, Byron wrote the first portion of his "Childe Harold," the ascent of the Ænos and the journey thence to Samos and Ithaca, as well as numerous delightful trips to other beauty-spots, are all to be remembered with pleasure by those who have undertaken them in the days of early spring, when Cephalonia wears its most fascinating garb and the weather conditions—earthquakes excepted—are ideal. If the British, mainly under the governorship of Sir Charles Napier, had done nothing else for the Cephalonians than to construct the excellent roads which render these different excursions possible, they would have deserved all the gratitude and recognition which they and their successors could show them.

One sees the lofty mountains of Cephalonia some considerable time before reaching the port of Argostoli. And they are beautiful mountains, green and forest-clad from their summits and stretching down to the

bright blue waters which lave their feet. The Cephalonians are very proud of their island, and its sons are found scattered all the world over, the wandering spirit having apparently come down to them from their undoubted Hellenic ancestors. The Normans, however, who conquered the island in 1185, have left traces of their occupation. The early Italians came afterwards and established the County Palatine of Cephalonia, and they maintained their supremacy until 1479. From Turkish, and later on from French, this island, in common with Corfu, Zante, and Ithaca, passed into British occupation; but they again became Greek territory in 1864.

The Cephalonians, although not collectively a rich community, have numbered among them some of the wealthiest of the Greeks and some of the most munificent. Practically all of the great enterprises which have been undertaken on the island have been financed by absent Cephalonian capitalists, and the result is found in the elegance of many of the public buildings, the width and the cleanliness of the streets, and the number of handsome churches. The Marina is a fine sea-road, some three-quarters of a mile in length, and faced by a number of handsome buildings—and by others which are far from being handsome. Doubtless these will be removed in time, if not by another earthquake, then by human agency.

The British settlement in Cephalonia is a very small one, consisting mainly of Mr. J. Toole and his family of seven or eight members, and the Vice-Consul, Mr. John Saunders. The former, who is the proprietor of some extensive wine-cellars, comes of a family who have been settled in the island for close upon a century. He is a deeply respected and very popular member of the community, while both he and his charming wife are the dispensers of much kindly and cheery hospitality to all who visit the island. Mrs. Toole, moreover, is an artist of exceptional ability, her water-colour sketches

—mostly of Greek and especially Cephalonian scenery—ranking as works of conspicuous merit.

Mr. and Mrs. John Saunders are no less ready to extend their hearty welcome to strangers, their large and roomy house, formerly the hospital, being the scene of much pleasant entertainment. I have had occasion to refer elsewhere to the capable consular reports of which Mr. Saunders is the author, his three-and-thirty years of experience as His Britannic Majesty's representative upon the island having naturally provided him with a valuable knowledge of local conditions, a source of information which is available to all who would seek it.

Many Cephalonians have informed me that the island was never better nor more satisfactorily ruled than under the British, who were there for fifty years, and the descendants of those who lived under the governorship of Sir Charles Napier remember to have heard their parents speak of the cordial feelings which prevailed between the islanders and the British in those days. The governorship of Sir Charles lasted from 1822 to 1830, and the affection in which his memory is held is testified to by the handsome Napier Gardens and marble bust which have been dedicated to his name.

Sir Thomas Maitland—"King Tom," as he was called—the first of the British Lord High Commissioners who came from Corfu to reside for a short while on the island, is no less reverently remembered, a fine monument having been erected to his honour in the large public square which stands at the north end of the Marina in Argostoli.

Mr. W. E. Gladstone came here also, in 1858, for a few days at the time that he was acting in the capacity of Extraordinary Commissioner to the Ionian Islands, and to study the grievances of the people. It was mainly on the advice of the "G. O. M." that England granted the petition of the Greeks to restore to them the Ionian Islands, which was done in the month of November, 1863.

IONIAN ISLANDS: THE TOWN OF ARGOSTOLI, CEPHALONIA, SHOWING THE MARINA, THREE-QUARTERS OF A MILE IN LENGTH.

(See p. 357.)

Cephalonia

In Cephalonia, as in Zante, British trade holds first place, and has done so for many years past. The total commerce (imports and exports) of the island is not very heavy, amounting in the aggregate to £240,000 for 1909-10; but out of this Great Britain was responsible for £35,150 in imports in 1909 and for £33,501 in 1910. The nearest competitor was Russia, with £21,800 and £20,070 for each of the two years mentioned. Germany secured less than one-half of the amount, and the United States of America so little as to be hardly worth mentioning. For 1911, out of a total trade of £275,892, Great Britain's share was £36,524.

The year 1911 was not wholly a good one from a trading point of view, but the prospects for 1912 are considered as being a little more encouraging. The unsettled condition of things generally, coupled with the losses occasioned by the most recent earthquakes, are responsible for this retrogressive movement. The whole island's prosperity depends upon the currant and olive crops, and when these are poor or prices rule low the purchasing powers of the community are necessarily restricted.

In 1910, for instance, the currant crop was fully 15 per cent. below that of 1909, while 1,250,000 lbs. of currants were more or less damaged by rains. Nevertheless 1,000,000 lbs. of the damaged crop went into the retention stores, the remainder being shipped as "good sound fruit." For 1911, the currant crop amounted to 18,700,000 lbs., and a value of £113,700.

The vintage of the island was 15 per cent. above that of the previous year, and proved of remarkably good quality. In 1910 winds adversely affected the olive crop, which was injured in addition by the absence of rain when it was most required—namely, during the spring months. Thus the oil produced was 150 tons, of a value of £7,050, as against 200 tons, of a value of £8,500, for the previous year. On the other hand,

in 1911, the oil produced amounted to a value of £152,000. The whole value of the island's principal exports in 1910 amounted to £186,702, against £171,584 in the year 1909. In 1911 the value reached £258,830.

British shipping is dealt with under "Ports and Harbours," Chapter XIX.

British import trade with Cephalonia is confined to one single commodity, viz., wine. If it comes via London it costs in freight £1 6s. 6d. per ton; if via Liverpool—both routes being in connection with the Netherlands—the freight is £1 8s. 6d. per ton. There would be a cheaper route via Malta, which would lower the freight to 13s. per ton; but there are no steamers which make the trip sufficiently regularly.

On the other hand, we send a fair amount of commodities to the island, such as groceries—most of these, however, reach Cephalonia from the mainland of Greece and from Russia—fish, such as cod, pickled salmon, Yarmouth bloaters, &c.; iron, both galvanised and corrugated; drugs, and a few textile goods.

CHAPTER XXXI

Eubœa—Industries—Population—Corfu—Scenery—Royal residences — Products — Population — Aspiotis' factory — Cyclades Islands—Sporades Islands—Hydra, Poros, Spetzai—Salamis—Ægina—Trade statistics—Crete—Political conditions and trade—Raisins and olive cultivation — Imports — Population — British commerce — The troubles of Crete—Its future—The prospects of twentieth-century Greece.

LARGEST of all the islands of Greece, Eubœa has an area of 1,380 square miles. Next to Corfu, this island ranks in the opinion of most visitors as the most beautiful. But there are also some interesting ruins, of which, however, I have no space unfortunately to speak here.

In the month of May last a new Prefect was dispatched to Eubœa, namely, M. N. E. Louriotis, whom I had the pleasure of meeting while Prefect of Patras. To this gentleman I am greatly indebted for the information concerning his new department, in which, I understand, he is already proving as popular and as highly esteemed as was the case while he was in office at Patras.

According to the census of October, 1907, the population of the island was 63,062 males and 64,477 females, or, say, a total of 127,509. Up to last year (1911) some 6,962 males and 43 females had emigrated from Eubœa to America.

Chalcis is the capital of the island, and that it is a decidedly ancient town may be inferred from the fact that as far back as 411 B.C. it was connected to the

mainland by a fortified wooden bridge. To-day a modern swing-bridge of iron is erected, and one end is used as the station of the Athens-Peloponnesus railway. There are probably some 10,958 inhabitants (and not only 8,600 as Baedeker informs us), of whom 6,116 are males and 4,842 females.

The industries of the island consist of wine-making, distilling, flour-milling, spinning, candle and wax manufacture, tanning, and manufacture of resinous products. The principal cotton mill is that of Messrs. Popaïoanos, Scouras & Co., who employ 22 men and 30 women. These latter work 13 hours a day, and earn between them 3,000 dr. (£120) per month. The tannery is owned by Messrs. Anastion Brothers, who employ 15 men and 1 woman, who earn from $2\frac{1}{2}$ dr. to 4 dr. each *per diem*. They work from sunrise to sunset, but have one hour's rest at midday.

The largest flour-mill, which is fitted up with a complete installation of British-made machinery, of 78 h.p., belongs to Messrs. Zachos Brothers, who employ 12 men and 3 women. The monthly wage list amounts to 1,500 dr., and the hours of daily work are 12.

Here also the Government have established one of their tobacco (monopoly) factories, where 14 men and 11 women are employed. The former earn from 50 lepta to 3 dr., and the latter from 20 lepta (2d.) to 1 dr. (10d.) *per diem*, the hours of labour being 10 daily. It would be interesting to know whether such low wages as these are paid anywhere else in the world. I wonder what our discontented trade unionists would say to this. And a Government—otherwise a "State-owned"—enterprise!

There is in Chalcis a well-equipped electric light station fitted with the Thomson-Houston installation. Sixteen men are employed here, whose monthly salary-list amounts to 2,300 dr. The factory for resinous products, which is owned by Messrs. Stainatis, Papa-

thassion & Co., employs 15 men, whose earnings range between 1½ and 3 dr. for a full 12 hours' day. In the distillery the wages paid are 3 dr. also for a 12-hour day.

Chalcis as the capital maintains a small military force, consisting of a regiment of infantry, 60 officers and 600 men, and a gendarmerie of 7 officers and 224 men. There are 3 prisons in the town, 1 for men, containing 144 criminals, 1 for women, containing but 2, and 1 for debt, containing about 17 men only.

The production of the Department of Eubœa for 1911 amounted to 20,000,000 okes of wine, 4,000,000 okes of oil, and considerable quantities of cereals, fruits (oranges, lemons, &c.), and manufactured articles.

I have seldom met a Greek from Corfu—Corfiotes they call themselves—but who was intensely proud of his birth and prouder still of his island. And when I myself visited it, I fully appreciated the depth of their sentiment. Beautiful in the extreme is this favoured land, rich beyond description in all the fruits of the earth, endowed with a superb climate, wherein frosts are almost — but not entirely — unknown, and with scenery which is simply entrancing. I think that in my travels, mostly conducted in motor-cars, I must have passed over and through the greater part of the island, and I remember nothing in the way of scenic surroundings which could be considered even mediocre. Even with my exceptional experience of wide-world travel (and I have wandered around the globe a half-dozen times), I can recall no more attractive scenery, no more wonderful vegetation, and but seldom such superb roads as are possessed by fortunate Corfu.

It is the largest as well as the most richly endowed of the Ionian Islands, having an area of 278 square miles. Unlike its neighbours, it possesses an abundance

of pure water, which may account for the extreme fertility of the entire area. There are some 92,000 inhabitants, practically all of whom are engaged, or are materially interested, in agriculture. They are among the cleanest, best mannered, and most cultured of all Greek people, and, moreover, they seem to be among the happiest.

The town of Corfu is most picturesquely situated, but it loses some of its attractiveness when seen at closer quarters. The surroundings make the place alluring, although one may spend several days—some even pass many weeks—during the early spring in the town of Corfu with considerable pleasure. There is much to see, but little to do. The Esplanade (Strada Marina), however, affords opportunity for agreeable promenades and delightful motoring, while the roads —as already mentioned—are so perfect that they afford great satisfaction to travel upon them. Unfortunately there is not a great variety of motoring routes, and after a few days' experience one comes to an end of a choice. On the other hand, each journey opens up almost entirely fresh beauties, or, if they be the same and become even a little monotonous, they are not at least the beauties "which fade in the eye and pall upon the sense."

The King possesses right in the town itself a very plain-looking palace, bereft of much privacy—and here, I understand, his Majesty remains but seldom for very long—and also a charming little villa, "Mon Repos," with beautiful and extensive gardens, which give on to some superb views over the town and fortress of Corfu. Here are to be seen some fine specimens of olive-, fig-, orange-, lemon-, and cypress-trees, carefully tended by many experienced gardeners, and, with his usual kindly thoughtfulness, his Majesty permits any one to visit his fairy-like retreat upon two afternoons in the week when the Court is not actually in residence.

In the month of May last, during the visit of the

Emperor William to the King of Greece at Mon Repos, both sovereigns witnessed the excavations which are now proceeding in the gardens of the villa. Already there have been discovered some very interesting remains, such, for instance, as a small temple of the fifth or sixth century B.C., and of the Doric order of architecture. Further explorations are proceeding, and many other treasures are expected to come to light. There can be no doubt that his Majesty will present them in due course to the nation, for inclusion in the magnificent collection of ancient Greek relics now in the Athens museum.

The famous residence belonging to the Emperor William of Germany, known as "Achilleion," which he purchased in 1907 from the executors of the late Empress Elizabeth of Austria, is another magnificent place, in as beautiful a situation as any human mind could devise. Perhaps there is a little too much outward decoration and statuary introduced, although nothing could possibly detract from the stateliness and the glorious colourings of the gardens. The villa itself is in the Italian Renaissance style, dazzlingly white against the vivid emerald greens of the gardens and the exquisite topaz blue of the Corfu sky. At the back of the villa stand some other imposing buildings, approached by a series of white marble terraces and a peristyle. It is here that is found the remarkable marble statue of the Dying Achilles, and numerous other statues of Greek heathen mythological subjects.

I should imagine that any one possessing such a delightful place of residence as "Achilleion" might very well be content to spend the rest of his life there, "the world forgetting," if not "by the world forgot." The Imperial owner does not object to visitors inspecting this earthly paradise when the presiding deity is absent.

The principal factory in Corfu is that of Messrs. G. Aspiotis Brothers, which was established in 1873 by M. G. N. Aspiotis. This establishment produces

all the Government stamps, transfer forms, scrip, tobacco-paper, playing-cards, and official documents, and it occupies the place of Government printers in general while retaining the freedom and privileges of a private firm. It is celebrated far beyond the confines of Corfu, or even of Greece, for the many beautifully printed works of art which it produces, lithographs, chromo-type prints, picture post-cards in endless variety of innumerable subjects. The Director-General, M. C. G. Aspiotis, who speaks and writes English fluently, has by his able management built up the business to its present commanding position. The staff, largely composed of women, are accommodated in a large and well-planned factory, each section having its sub-director and foreman or forewoman. A good deal of the material employed, such as papers, inks, printing supplies, and much of the actual machinery have been obtained from England, M. Aspiotis being a firm believer in the superiority of British manufacturers, even if not always satisfied with their methods of doing business.

Messrs. Margaritti & Co. have an important candle factory which employs fifty hands. The buildings, which are modern, are lighted by electricity, and the productions are stearine, stearic candles, glycerine, olein, paraffin, ceresin, vaseline, mineral oils, ice, and wire nails. The raw materials for the candles and bye-products are obtained from North America, Galicia, Roumania, &c. The annual productive capacity of the factory is 350,000 kilos of stearine and 800,000 kilos of paraffin; but consumption being restricted, the factory works during the winter months only, thus producing but one-half or two-thirds of the above totals. The ice factory, however, is operated all through the year, the productive capacity being 5,000 kilos daily.

An extremely well-managed and very profitable dairy belonging to M. Miltiades Margaritti & Co., supplies large quantities of delicious butter—and Corfu butter

is about the best that can be obtained anywhere —to the mainland of Greece, where it is sold at the highest prices. The dairy is operated almost entirely by women.

There are about 220 of the Cyclades Islands, of which 24 are important, and the remainder only of consequence to those who live upon them. No one could term them attractive from a scenic point of view, the formation being mainly of calcareous limestone, slate, gneiss, marble, and one or two other geological specimens, with but little vegetation. There is an absence of water for one thing to account for the little verdure met with, while rains come but seldom, and when they do they sweep down with terrific force and soon run away to sea without doing much good to the parched and thirsty ground.

The principal islands are those of Syra, Tenos, Naxos, and Andros, while Melos, Hera, and Kea are also fairly large in size and very prosperous. Naxos is perhaps the more agreeable, for it is the greenest and the most generously wooded. To visit any of these islands one must travel upon one of the smaller Greek boats—probably one of the Goudes line—which means discomfort from the beginning of the voyage to the end thereof. Likewise are the boats extremely unattractive, although the fares are no doubt cheap enough. That is to say, if one does not judge from the proverb—"Ill ware is never cheap."

For the wanderer with plenty of time upon his hands, much interest and amusement are to be derived from visits to Delos—the mythical birthplace of Apollo and Artemis—or to Tenos, where the minority of the inhabitants are Roman Catholics but have a bishop of their own; or to Naxos, the largest of all the islands, and which possesses the rare distinction of a little mineral railway; or, yet again, to Paros, Melos, Santorin (also

called Thera), and perhaps even to the group of smaller islands known as the Kayméni. This is the only place within the Hellenic Kingdom where an active volcano can still be found. The last eruption—not a very serious one—took place from the George crater (so named after the King) in 1866. Smoke still emerges in appreciable quantities occasionally.

Commercially speaking the Cyclades are not particularly prosperous at the present time. This is clearly seen from a perusal of the Syra Customs receipts for the past few years. They have fallen from 2,512,626 dr. in 1901 to 1,980,072 in 1900; to 1,356,923 in 1906; and to 999,917 in 1910. In 1911 they improved to 1,167,000 dr. What trade is done is principally with Great Britain, for out of a total of £344,321 carried on in 1910, the United Kingdom was responsible for £157,965. In 1911, out of a total trade of £374,507, Great Britain's share was £180,882. The export products of the islands are not very numerous, as may be imagined; emery from Naxos and iron ore from Seriphos, with a fair quantity of excellent wines from Santorin, are the principal articles.

But, on the other hand, the islanders—who are nearly all pure Ionians by descent—possess a by no means inconsiderable number of factories of their own. Thus, the Syrians—or Syra-ites—have several textile mills, fitted up with British machinery; six tanneries, which employ about 270 hands; some shipbuilding yards, where small vessels of wood, varying from 20 to 102 tons register, are constructed; a flour-mill, dealing with some 4,000 tons of grain—mostly Russian—annually; and a dockyard and arsenal which is equipped with moderately modern machinery, received from Great Britain.

The shipping of the Cyclades Islands is given under the heading of "Ports and Harbours," but it may be added that most of the steamers trading between the islands, and of which there are between forty and fifty

in number, and representing a gross registered tonnage of about 105,000 tons, were either constructed in England or were purchased there.

North of the Cyclades are found the Sporades, of which there are some twenty in all, large and small. Of these not more than four are inhabited, and it is refreshing to see how beautifully wooded are these in comparison with the majority of the Cyclades. Skiothas, for instance, is thickly covered with fir and other forests, while Skopeler is another verdure-clad islet, fairly well populated. Unfortunately, like their distant kinsfolk in Cephalonia and Zante, these people suffer greatly from earthquakes, and they live in almost continual dread of seismic disturbances.

I have in some other portions of this volume referred to the three principal islands, Hydra, Poros, and Spetzai, possessing among them some 15,000 or 16,000 inhabitants, and numbering some of the bravest and best men in the Greek nation. In the War of Independence it was these islanders who not alone found the money for ships, but the men to fight them, and many a brave tale of derring do is related to their credit. Hydra used to be an independent community, and kept aloof from purely Hellenic affairs; but the cry of its brethren could not be resisted, and flinging off its allegiance to the Porte, which by the by entailed a payment of £30 a year as tribute and the provision of 50 men for the Ottoman Navy, it threw in its lot with Greece. Under the leadership of Admiral Miaoulis, it gave an excellent account of itself, and saw the results of an independent Hellas in the end.

Other islands of interest and historic importance are Salamis, the home of the elder Ajax, and the scene of the great battle which resulted in the armament of Xerxes, King of Persia, being destroyed in the year 480 B.C.; Ægina, with its beautiful air and diversified rocky scenery, its olive, fig, and almond groves, and prosperous sponge fisheries; Kythera—or Cerigo, as

it is sometimes called—formerly one of the Ionian Islands, but separated therefrom when the British occupation came to an end in 1864, with its 6,000 inhabitants, extremely poor, and most of whom go away to other parts of Greece to serve as hotel and restaurant waiters.

Although, as mentioned in connection with the discussion of Cretan matters, the Island of Crete is not a Greek possession, by every law of reason and justice it should be so. It is exclusively populated by Greeks, moreover, and has so intimate a connection with the Hellenic Kingdom, that it is not possible to avoid some fuller reference to its economic conditions, although I leave its political history, aims, and ambitions to those who are more competent to deal with them than I am, and in a more appropriate publication than this. Naturally, during my visit to the much-disturbed island, I heard a good deal about the people's grievances—indeed, but little else was being discussed; and these grievances—some very real, others rather imaginary—seriously interfere with the economic expansion of what is naturally one of the richest agricultural districts in the world.

It is a thousand pities that for over a full century the attention of the inhabitants should have been almost entirely devoted to polemics, but so it is, and so, I am afraid, it must be until some combined European steps are taken either to compel the Cretans to accept the situation ordained for them—and with such a stiff-necked and warlike race this is patently impossible—or to allow them to become united with the kingdom of Greece, as they unanimously demand.

Considering the almost chaotic situation of the Government since the departure of the last High Commissioner, it is hardly surprising to find a lack of anything in the direction of accurate official information

FOUNTAIN OF MOROSINI, A VENETIAN SCULPTURE, AT CANDIA, CRETE.

BRITISH CEMETERY AT CANDIA, CRETE. (See p. 372.)

[To face p. 373.

concerning the commercial and industrial conditions of the island. Nevertheless, I was enabled, thanks to the assistance of M. A. T. Calocherino, the British Vice-Consul at Candia, to obtain certain information concerning the position of trade and the apportionment of the British connection. The value of imports from Great Britain into Crete for the year 1911 amounted to about £66,000, which was some £6,000 better than for the year 1910. The purchasing power of the people was better last year on account of the excellent prices realised for raisins, sultanas, rosakis, and wine, and in spite of the fact that the olive crop and olive-oil produce amounted to but one-half of the full quantity usually obtained. The olive-oil for 1911 amounted to nearly 12,000 tons, one-half of which was produced by Candia and the other half by Lassithi. Of this quantity Great Britain took 800 tons at £43 10s. per ton (f.o.b.), while from these two districts the export to other countries amounted to 1,600 tons during the year.

The raisin crop proved to be 25 per cent. greater than that of 1910, and the enhanced price realised for sultanas has induced many proprietors to lay out new plantations for the present year. While, as a rule, the quantity of carobs does not vary, there was a decrease in 1910 of 46,000 cwts., although the crop realised £7,000 more than that for 1909. In 1911, from Candia and Lassithi 160,000 cwts. (say 8,000 tons) were exported in the following proportions: 2,000 tons to Italy, 2,000 to Russia and Roumania, and 4,000 to France. The average price realised was £3 18s. per ton (f.o.b.) without sacks.

The imports of the island, if taken over an average of five years, show a yearly sum of £1,400,000, with an excess of imports over exports of about £156,000.

There are no railways in Crete, and the roads as a rule are extremely poor, being scarcely "maintained" at all. Efforts are being made to do something towards remedying these conditions, and at the

request of the Candia Chamber of Commerce a definite move has been made in the direction of constructing a new port at Candia. The Bank of Athens is interested in this enterprise, and has undertaken to guarantee a company which will provide the necessary funds at an interest of 5 or 6 per cent. upon an estimated amount of expenditure of 4,000,000 dr. (£160,000). A local company or syndicate is to be formed for the purpose of carrying out this project, one which should, if properly handled, prove very remunerative.

The citron crop of Crete was an exceptionally good one in 1911, and prices obtained were correspondingly high, viz., 60 lepta per oke, as against 25 lepta, the price obtained previously. The reason for the advance was the failure of the citron crop in Italy and elsewhere.

Olive-oil ranks as an important export of Crete, and it is estimated that about 30,000,000 okes of this product are obtained during a good year; but it is thought that only about one-half of this amount will represent the production of 1912. The olive-oil is exported principally to England, although a small amount is sent to Egypt and Trieste.

Up to eight or ten years ago nearly all the iron imported into Crete came from England, but since then prices asked have ruled so high (10 per cent. more than formerly) that importing-houses have placed their orders with Belgian and German firms, which have kept their selling prices low.

The population of the whole island is estimated at 330,000, of whom 30,000, or, in other words, 11 per cent., are Turks. Before the last insurrectionary movement there were 70,000 Turks upon the island, but for the past fifteen years the Ottoman population has been diminishing. The population of Canea is roughly 22,100, of Rethymo 9,800, and of Candia (town) about 27,000 inhabitants, one-half of whom are composed of Christians and the other half of Moslems.

The father of the present British Vice-Consul (M

Calocherino) was Vice-Consul at Candia for forty years, and he was finally murdered by Cretan rioters during the insurrection of 1898.

Undoubtedly there exist openings for British goods in Crete, if the exporting houses would consent to send out competent commercial travellers to study the wants of the market, instructed to make a prolonged and a systematic canvass, and to become better acquainted with the various individuals who import foreign goods, so as to ascertain at the same time, by personal inquiry, the financial status of such firms. Each month sees commercial travellers arrive from Germany, Belgium, and other parts, and depart after a few weeks' stay with substantial orders, new ideas, and much useful commercial information; an English commercial traveller in Crete is but seldom encountered.

The Cretans are, as a general rule, considered honest, but discretion, of course, must be exercised in trading here as elsewhere, and it is only by employing representatives who are well acquainted with the language, manners, and customs of the inhabitants that the right sort of information which will lead to profitable business can be obtained.

Trade with the United States is at present but slight, owing to the great distance separating the island from that country, but latterly a few consignments of citrons, almonds, and olive-oil have been dispatched to North America, while some cheap leather goods and small quantities of tinned foods have been imported into Crete.

The cost of living may be considered as fairly low, the average prices for various dietary articles being as follows: lamb from 1.5 dr. per oke; chicken from 80 lepta to 2 dr.; eggs from 5 to 10 lepta; pork from 1.20 dr. to 1.60 dr. per oke; veal 1.50 to 2 dr. per oke; beef is, however, much cheaper. Milk at the commencement of winter costs between 30 lepta and 1 dr. per oke. As the season advances the price gradually descends to 20 lepta per oke. Butter, of

which very little is made in the country, is imported from Bengazi and Derna, and costs from 5 to 6 dr. per oke, the great rise in price being due to the long-continued war between Turkey and Italy. The usual price is but 3 dr. per oke.

For live animals the sums paid are as follows: horses from £5 to £20; cows from 100 to 200 dr. (say, £4 to £8); milch-cows, however, are unobtainable; goats cost from 10 to 20 dr.; sheep between 15 and 20, and sometimes as much as 22 dr.; lambs from 15 dr.; donkeys from 60 to 200 dr.; and mules from 200 to 600 dr.

The average length of time during which beasts of burden can be kept at work is estimated at fifteen years. The Cretans, like most people of Southern Europe, display but little consideration for their animals, and they rarely keep pets. There is, indeed, a lamentable indifference displayed to the suffering of the dumb brute creation, and, without being a cruel race, the Cretans can hardly be regarded as a very humane one.

And yet, as a people, they are eminently sympathetic; no one passing any time among them, seeing them in their homes, listening to their witty and sometimes even brilliant conversation, or discussing with them the knotty points of annexation to Greece, can fail to feel for them a deep sense of friendliness and mutual sensibility. Indeed, I have formed a profound sympathy for them and for their position, and I have no doubt whatever that were they and their claims better understood at the Courts of Europe, the question of a political union with Greece would be the more speedily solved.

A few months ago it appeared as if the matter would be arranged as an outcome of the troubles of Turkey; the war with Italy, the occupation of Tripoli, the seizure of several Turkish islands in the Ægean Sea, the difficulty with Montenegro and the serious internal complications of the Ottoman Empire seemed likely to result in Turkey being declared at last to be unfit

to have further control of Cretan affairs in name; in fact, it had ceased to do so long ago—indeed, since the granting of autonomy to that much-tried but heroic people in 1898. The present position of the islanders is a most serious one. In addition to their political troubles and generally unsettled condition, the country is rapidly being drained of its population, which is dwindling to an alarming extent. Even the Mussulmans are joining the movement, and are leaving in hundreds, taking their live-stock, especially all the mules which they can find, with them.

The ultimate fate of Crete is as perplexing as it is pitiable. Whether it be again governed from Athens or absorbed in the Grecian Kingdom, or whether it be eventually allowed by the Great Powers and by Turkey —compelled to so agree—to become an independent State, it is difficult to see how it can throw off for a great many years the effects of its political trials during the past three or four centuries (since it was subdued but never conquered by the Turks in 1669), but especially during the last seventy years, during which the whole island has been in a state of almost continuous insurrection. Not only have the Cretans found it impossible to govern themselves contentedly without endangering the peace of Europe, but their unsettled condition and political aspirations are a continual menace to Greece and an embarrassment to its Government.

Aside from the Cretan question, the outlook for the Hellenic Kingdom is of the very brightest. With a Government composed of sound business men, as shrewd in all commercial and financial matters as they are honest and capable in administration, with an entrenched financial position which for solidity has never been equalled, and with the eyes of capitalistic Europe at last focused interestedly upon the country and its great industrial future, the prospects of Greece of the twentieth century are decidedly hopeful. It may be

that in counting the sunny and the cloudy days of their recent history the Greeks are unable to find that the sunny ones predominate; but the stormy and stressful times have apparently passed, never, be it hoped, to return.

Agatho, the Athenian tragic poet, once declared: "Of this alone, even God is deprived, the power of making things that are past never to have been"; but the future is in the hands of the Greeks themselves, and I am confident that they will make the most of it, and will deal wisely and prudently with the abundant opportunities which to-day are theirs.

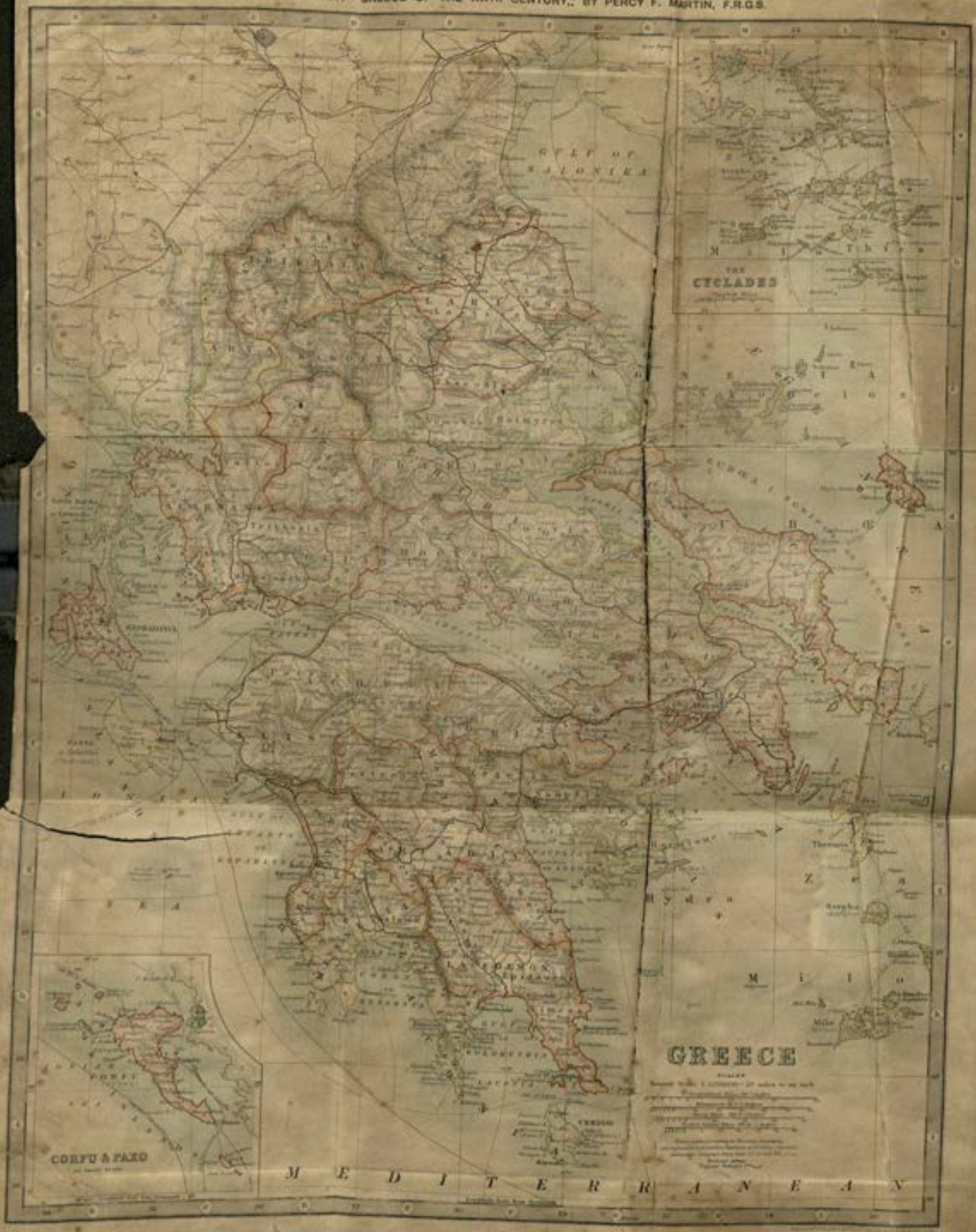
AN AFTERWORD

As these pages go to press, Greece is at war with her old and deadly enemy Turkey. This will be the third occasion within the century that the two neighbours have been locked in a destructive struggle, and while I can but regret the necessity which has prompted Greece at last to appeal to the resort of arms, I feel that I am but echoing the sentiments of all who know the Greeks and who have learned something of the bitter experiences of their brethren living abroad at the hands of the Turks, for years compelled to endure religious as well as political oppression, when I express the fervent hope that success may ultimately be with them. Already the issue shows how well founded has been the confidence which these pages express in the splendid fighting material which the country of Hellas can afford; and my references to the brighter future of Crete (pages 6–7) seem likely to be justified by events.

PERCY F. MARTIN.

October 20, 1912.

TO ACCOMPANY "GREECE OF THE XXTH CENTURY," BY PERCY F. MARTIN, F.R.G.S.



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